The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 31, 1888.

The Week.

AMONG the really telling speeches on the tariff question that the present debate has brought out, that of Mr. Fitch of New York is entitled to preëminence for calmness, sobriety, and common sense. It is the second Republican speech during this session of Congress that has put the fiscal aspect of the tariff above the partisan aspect, that of Mr. Nelson of Minnesota being the other. These two have discussed the question as though it were one of taxation and of dollars and cents, in which Republican taxpayers are as much interested as Democratic. They alone have approached the schedules of duties on imports with the understanding that men may honestly differ as to the rightfulness of a particular rate on any particular article of commerce. No other speaker on that side has admitted that a duty of 100 per cent., for example, should be reduced to 99 per cent., or that the question of reduction can properly be raised and drawn into debate, except on the single article of sugar. Here there is a wide difference in the Republican camp. Mr. Kelley and his school of Chinese-wall builders would not allow the smallest reduction on sugar, any more than on pig-iron. But the majority of the party would gladly throw the sugar-planters, and also the beet and sorghum cranks, overboard in order to save the remainder of the protected classes. They tell us that the doctrine of protection does not apply to sugar, because after half-a-century of continued effort we have not succeeded in increasing the product of home-grown sugar. This is substantially true of hemp, flax, carpet wools, tin plate, woollen dress goods, and many other things, the duties on which the Republicans will not allow to be touched, and would not allow even to be talked about if they could have their way. But the argument as applied to sugar has a strange sound when we listen to the appeals of the beet-root growers in California and the sorghum experimenters in Kansas, who tell us that if we will only have patience and continue to pay $60,000,000 a year, they will show us a "development" equal to that of France and Germany in the production of sugar. These appeals are based upon the true protectionist philosophy, and they are supported by an example of much force in the Old World.

When Mr. Fitch insists upon looking at the separate items of the tariff in order to see what inequalities, and, therefore, what wrongs and injustices, it may contain, he merely reverts to the principles of common sense which such leading Republicans as Sherman, Garfield, Allison, and even the author of the Morrill tariff, avowed, and which two-thirds of the party in the House sustained by their votes, a few years ago. The present position of the party, as Mr. Fitch says, is that although the tariff needs amendment, it should only be amended by its friends. The present inequalities, wrongs, and injustices should be continued until the Republicans secure a majority of both branches of Congress. And here Mr. Fitch makes what we consider his strongest point, namely, that this argument requires that acknowledged wrong and injustice should be continued for ever unless the Republicans carry a national election. But, he says, when the Republicans do carry a national election on this issue, it will be urged with irresistible force that the people's verdict is against any meddling with the tariff, so that the wrong and injustice must be equally perpetuated whether the Republicans carry the election or not. The conclusion is enforced by all the experience we have had since the close of the war, that if the reform of the tariff can only be made by its friends, it will never be reformed at all, no matter how odious and oppressive it may become. The Republicans cut down the duties 10 per cent. in 1872, but they restored them to the old figure in 1875. They created the Tariff Commission in 1882, only to upset and nullify their reformatory work in the following year. Then they went out of power, and took the position that no reform must be made or attempted until they got into power again. This dog-in-the-manger policy Mr. Fitch has exposed thoroughly, and has made a national reputation by so doing.

The arguments made in the House in favor of the bill to prohibit the transportation of goods manufactured by convict labor from one State to another, were of the nauseous character usual to demagogues when they address themselves to Labor. Remark that the prohibition is not directed against commerce in hurtful articles, but merely in articles produced in a certain way. The same arguments employed to prohibit the transportation of goods made by convict labor would be equally effective and valid to prohibit that of any other goods. The bill, in fact, opens the door for a general scheme of inter-State protective legislation. It would be quite in keeping with such legislation to pass a law prohibiting the transportation of cheap manufactured goods from Massachusetts to the Southern and Western States where "infant industries" have been started. In fact, the arguments used by Mr. Cabot Lodge in favor of this bill are exactly adapted to support such a measure. Mr. Lodge cited the case of cocoa matting produced in the Pennsylvania State prison. This cocoa matting, he said, had severely crippled the manufacture of such matting in his own State. Perhaps so —perhaps not. Every manufacturer is interested in getting a rival out of the way, whether it be the product of prison labor or of free labor. His word is not to be taken upon that point without thorough investigation. But supposing that the manufacturers of boots and shoes in Illinois find that the competition of manufacturers in Massachusetts "severely cripples" them, is there any constitutional reason why they should not have a law passed to prohibit the transportation of boots and shoes from Massachusetts to Illinois? Moral reasons there are in plenty, but we are speaking now of constitutional reasons. We can see none whatever, but we can see plainly that Mr. Lodge and those who agree with him are blazing the way for inter-State protection laws, from which the older manufacturing States will be the first and principal sufferers.

The Anti-Prison Bill, if it could be put in force at all, would disorganize all the prisons in the country. The Governor of California protested against it, saying that that State, after multiplied efforts to employ convicts on work not performed by free labor in the State, had got to work at last on jute-bags, which are sold to farmers in Oregon and Washington Territory, and that the passage of the bill would cut off that resource and leave the prisons a sheer burden on the taxpayers, all of whom are now satisfied with the happy settlement of the prison-labor question. Mr. Outhwaite of Ohio said that 700 prisoners in his State were out on parole under a ticket-of-leave system, working for wages, and that the bill would drive them back to the prisons to be supported by the money of the taxpayers, because nobody would hire them if their products could not be sold. The case was cited of the manufacture of saddle-trees in the Missouri penitentiary for the Mexican market, 95 per cent. of the product being exported to Mexico, none of which could be sent out of the State under the provisions of the bill. Mr. Adams of Illinois said that the penitentiary authorities of his State, after infinite trouble in meeting the demands of labor, were experimenting in the manufacture of brick for the lower Mississippi districts, where there was no clay suitable for brick-making, and that this resource would be cut off by the bill, to the great injury of the State of Illinois, which made the bricks, and of the States which desire to purchase them. All was of no avail. The bill passed by a vote of 185 to 44, and thus Labor secured a great triumph in the way of increasing local taxes in order that convicts may have plenty to eat and nothing to do. But it was shown in the course of the debate that the real movers for the bill were a few manufacturing firms in the larger cities, who, of course, did not omit the opportunity to show that wages were depressed by convict labor, and that they would be enabled to do much better by their workmen if prison labor, amounting to 54-100 of 1 per cent. of the mechanical labor of the country, were suppressed altogether. The prospect of an increase of 54-100 of 1 per cent. in the rate of wages must be very alluring to the working classes. But where is the

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guarantee that employers of labor will pay it to the workmen when they get it?

The *Tribune*, backed by Mr. Joseph Nimmo, jr., has conceived a sudden liking for foreign commerce, and calls loudly for duties of 40 per cent. against goods transported by the Canadian Pacific Railway in order to get some. There is a better way to attract foreign commerce than the establishment of discriminating tolls against the carriers of the same. What the country needs, and what it is in a fair way to obtain, is the lowering of existing duties, not the enactment of new ones. If Canada chooses to subsidize a railway across the continent, she only follows our example of twenty years ago. We hope she will not have as much trouble with her Pacific-railway subsidy as we have had with ours. If she chooses also to subsidize a steamship line to Asia, here again she only follows our example, and here again we hope she may reap more wholesome fruits than we did.

The *Times* has information from Washington that the special Committee of the House appointed to investigate the Reading strike are considering favorably a bill to put any railroad in the hands of a receiver which fails for thirty days, on account of any difficulty with its train hands, to discharge its duties to the public as a common carrier. The bill is said to provide, also, that train hands must give at least ten days' notice of intention to strike, and that railroad companies must likewise give at least ten days' notice of an intention to reduce wages. It would, of course, be improper to criticise such a measure in detail until its details are furnished, but if any such measure is contemplated, it is difficult to see how it is to be reconciled with article 5 of the amendments to the Constitution, which says that no person shall be deprived of his property without due process of law, and that private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation. The appointment of a receiver is a judicial act, and cannot possibly be made a legislative or an executive act. A receiver is, in fact, an officer of the court. He stands in the place of the judge as to certain things. All his acts, from taking possession of the property to the sale or rendition of the same, are the acts of the court. Now, the proposition is that the judges of the United States courts shall take possession of and operate all railroads that have disputes with their train hands, provided the train hands seize the road or terrorize the community so as to prevent the regular running of trains for thirty days. We do not believe that any court will assume the responsibility of appointing a receiver to take possession of a solvent railroad which is making due and diligent efforts, as the Reading Railroad certainly did, to discharge its duties as a common carrier.

The negotiation of about $25,000,000 of Reading 4 per cent. bonds and $12,000,000 first preference incomes, as announced on Friday, is the culmination of one of the largest business undertakings of modern times. We say the culmination, because the negotiation of this first instalment of the new securities to replace others bearing a higher rate of interest insures the negotiation of the remainder. There is an increasing demand among the investing public for low-interest bonds that are well secured, as is shown by the firmness with which the West Shore 4s have always been held. This demand is accentuated by the purchases of Government 4s and 4½s by the Secretary of the Treasury, and by the near extinction of the latter class of securities, which run only three years longer. When the remainder of the $100,000,000 of Reading 4s (less the portion reserved for prior-lien bonds, etc.) are taken, the total fixed charges will be reduced $1,500,000. The other and minor parts of the plan of reorganization have always hinged upon the success of the $100,000,000 loan. It may be assumed, therefore, that the contemplated reduction of fixed charges is within sight. The plan of reorganization embraces the Coal and Iron Company as well as the Railroad Company, and among the fixed charges under the new mortgage is a sinking fund of ten cents per ton of coal mined to replace the capital represented by the coal so disposed of, this sinking fund to be invested either in the company's securities or in the acquisition of other coal property. The company owns about 36 per cent. of the anthracite in Pennsylvania, and the supply is computed to last until the year A. D. 2057, allowance being made for a progressive increase of consumption.

Senator Stewart of Nevada has made his promised speech in support of his proposition practically to abolish the veto power, by allowing a majority of Congress to pass a bill over the President's objections, and a curious sort of speech it was, filled largely with complaints of the Government's policy regarding silver, the purchase of bonds, the disposition of the public lands, etc. When he came down to facts about the matter in hand, he showed himself utterly misinformed. He said, for example, that "there is a growing sentiment in the States against the veto power," and in support of this statement declared that "nine of them have already qualified it, so that a majority of the Legislature can pass a bill over the veto of the Governor." The truth is that the tendency has been strongly in the opposite direction. Five of the original thirteen States at first gave the Governor no veto power, but have since conferred it upon him, Connecticut in 1818, New Jersey in 1844, and Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina since the war. Moreover, instead of a disposition to qualify the power by reducing the proportion of votes necessary to override a veto, the drift has been strongly the other way. Only two States have ever made such a change, Kentucky having changed from a two-thirds vote in 1792 to a majority vote in 1799, and Nebraska, which began in 1867 with two-thirds, having changed to three-fifths in 1875, while Missouri, Florida, and Illinois have changed from a majority to two-thirds. Furthermore, New York, Pennsylvania, and some other States have increased the veto power by giving the Executive the right to disapprove single sections of appropriation bills.

It would be easy to show that this steady increase of the Executive's share in the business of legislation has been to the public advantage. Four of the States have never given the Governor any veto power—Rhode Island, Ohio, Delaware, and North Carolina—while Ohio does not even require the Executive signature to a legislative act. The result is, that the Governor of Ohio exercises but little influence, and there is no check upon the folly of a Legislature. Even the limited veto power which can be nullified by a majority vote, is better than none at all, as Gov. Buckner of Kentucky repeatedly proved during the recent session of the Legislature. That body passed a number of ill-considered acts which he could not approve, and though a majority could overcome his objections, he was sustained in every important case, so strong were his messages. But the pride of legislative opinion is usually so great, and the force of partisanship generally so strong, that as a rule the Executive needs the requirement of at least a two-thirds vote to overcome his objections. The development of our institutions has shown that the early fears of the Executive's grasping too much power were groundless, and that the centring of responsibility upon one man, through the veto prerogative, may save the people from terrible evils which the representatives of the people, with their divided responsibility, may be ready to sanction, as when Congress passed the Inflation Bill in 1874, and a majority (but not two-thirds) of the Senate voted to pass it over Grant's veto. Instead of diminishing the present veto power, the next change is likely to be its extension, through a provision which will give the President the right to veto separate items of an appropriation bill.

The Maine Democrats have made a most admirable nomination for Governor in selecting Mr. William L. Putnam of Portland as their candidate. Mr. Putnam is a lawyer of such ability and standing in his profession that he was properly regarded as within the range of choice when the vacancy in the Chief Justiceship was under consideration. He has been Mayor of his city, was one of the Commission which framed the Fishery Treaty, and would make an excellent Governor. Mr. Putnam recently made an interesting contribution to political discussion in a thoughtful letter to a Portland club, giving his views as to the national reforms which are now most needed. Beginning with the proposition, which everybody will concede, that the methods of government in a republic should be so simple that there need not be an official class, he pointed out that "a republican form of government ceases to be

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truly republican when, by reason of its complex nature or of monopolization by a body of interested persons, it passes in its principal relations beyond the ordinary understanding of the professional man, the merchant, the mechanic, or the farmer, or is shielded from the just influence which citizens in the ordinary walks of life ought properly to wield." He then showed how the protective tariff and the spoils system are separating the ordinary citizen from the administration of public affairs; the former by so complicating our taxing systems as to put them beyond the comprehension of anybody but an expert, while the latter "continuously promotes the growth of an interested class, at times salaried by the Government, and always encouraged to devote itself to grasping a monopoly of public affairs." His conclusion, therefore, is, that "at present the most important thing is to resist the tendencies to segregation of the mass of the people from direct intervention in the affairs of government," by reform both in the tariff and in the civil service.

Anarchism and Socialism had a disagreement on Sunday at a joint meeting held at 201 Broome Street. Mr. L. Spector, or Spectre, was the presiding officer, and the question under debate was whether the "Russian Progressive Union" of New York should become a more radical organization than its name implies, or whether the radicals and the conservatives—*i. e.*, the Anarchists and the Socialists—should separate from each other and push their respective doctrines in different ways. The Socialists, being in the majority, voted to dissolve the union. Thereupon the Anarchists, according to the *Herald's* report, did "howl, wail, and gnash their teeth with fury." This was to be expected, but why did they call their late allies "scoundrels and thieves," as the report further narrates? How is a man lowered in the esteem of Anarchists by calling him a thief, or even by proving him to be one? This ought to be considered the highest title of honor except that of homicide. We were compelled to lament the inconsistency of the Chicago Anarchists—those who were not executed—when they cried out against the judicial murder of the bomb-throwers. We pointed out that if Lingg and his associates were, as they alleged, hanged contrary to law and without having had a fair trial, that was a public vindication of anarchy, and ought to be accepted as such, and not mourned over as a calamity. So, too, if the Socialist branch of the Russian Protective Union of New York is composed of thieves, who take property by a majority vote, they ought to be cheered and not hissed by their Anarchist neighbors.

The laying last week of the corner-stone of the great Catholic university which is to be reared in Washington was not only a noteworthy event in itself, but was given peculiar importance and significance by the remarkable address delivered on the occasion by the Right Rev. John L. Spalding, Bishop of Peoria, Ill. One could not imagine a more striking proof of the change which is coming over the Roman Catholic Church, and the wonderful adaptability to new conditions which it displays, than is shown by this eloquent address. "To do the best work," Bishop Spalding frankly said, "the Catholic Church must fit herself to a constantly changing environment, to the character of every people, and to the wants of each age." "If there are Catholics who linger regretfully amid glories that have vanished," he said further, "there are also Catholics who, in the midst of their work, feel a confidence which leaves no place for regret; who well understand that the earthly environment in which the Church lives is subject to change and decay, and that new surroundings imply new tasks and impose new duties." The keynote of this address was the supreme value of the higher education and the celebration of the true university as its seat—a university which "will be the home both of ancient wisdom and of new learning; will teach the best that is known and encourage research; will stimulate thought, refine taste, and awaken the love of excellence; will be a nursery of ideas, a centre of influence." The truth is, that a candid Protestant may read this address from beginning to end, not only without finding anything to arouse his indignation or excite his apprehension, but with a growing surprise at the elevation of its tone, the breadth of its view, the comprehensiveness of its scope.

The international controversy between the Lotos Club of this city and the Savage Club of London appears to turn on the question as to whether a mutual agreement to exchange "courtesies" means that the members of one club shall have the unrestrained privilege of getting drunk in and knocking down the members of the other club, and vice-versa. The Lotos Club takes the ground that it does not, and has severed the agreement because a London visitor to its quarters did get drunk and attempt to knock down an "Italian gentleman" who happened to be present as a member's guest. This is made the excuse for the discontinuance of "courtesies," but there are intimations from London that the decision to sever was first reached by the Savage Club because some of its members, many of whom belong to the theatrical profession, have suffered gross indignities in the Lotos quarters when they have sought to enjoy the "courtesies" promised them in the agreement. One of them is said to have heard himself called a "bum actor" when he was sauntering through the Lotos parlors, which, if true, must naturally have shaken even a Savage's confidence in Lotos courtesy. It is a painful controversy, and is in danger of casting a gloom over the Lotos banquet to the next eminent English actor who ventures upon our shores.

The long-delayed official explanation by the Mexican Government of the terms of the last foreign loan leaves even less ground than had been supposed to exist, for regarding it as a proof of a great advance of Mexican credit in Europe. Instead of eighty-six, at which figure it was at first reported the German banker Herr Bleichroeder would take the loan, seventy is the exact amount realized. The net result, therefore, is simply that the Mexican Government has been able to get money loaned it at a little over 9 per cent. interest, and that, too, only by making extraordinary pledges to guarantee punctual payment of this high interest, in the shape of a practical assignment to the bondholders of 20 per cent. of the customs receipts, together with nearly all the direct taxes of the Federal District. Inasmuch as Secretary Dublan represents the principal advantage of the new loan to consist in enabling him to pay off the floating debt, with its "heavy interest," it may be imagined at what rate he has been forced to pay the National Bank for moneys advanced to make good the annually recurring deficits. If it is a great stroke to get funds at 9 per cent., it is not so strange that popular rumor has made the rate before paid 12 or 15. It is to be remembered, also, that but one-third of the total loan proposed has yet been taken. It would not be strange if the whole scheme ended with this. Certainly European investors who should conclude that the new Mexican loan was promising, would have to do so in the face of such weighty financial authorities as the London *Times* and *Economist*, and the Berlin *Nation*. It was the latter journal that remarked, referring to the German subscriptions to the new Mexican loan, that "it was a new example of the old truth that no one is so confiding as the small capitalist."

M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, in the *Économiste Français* of May 12, finds reason to believe that a real revival of business is taking place in France, notwithstanding the depression of agriculture due to the bad harvest of last year. He sees evidence for this opinion in the gradually improving dividends of the finance, industrial, and navigation companies and the railroads, and in the gradually increasing yield of the general taxes and the octroi of Paris. The drawbacks to French prosperity are protectionism, political uncertainty, the apprehension of war, and the Panama Canal. "Without exaggeration," he says, "it is plain that all the symptoms, or nearly all, show a tendency to a sure revival of business. We see only two classes of adverse facts. On the one side, France is committing the folly, under the instigation of the ruling powers, of plunging deeper and deeper into the ruinous enterprise of Panama, which will swallow all the savings put into it without any return whatever. On the other side, politics does not seem to grow more reassuring. If we could oblige our radicals to give a little social peace to the country, to stop their agitations, their pretended reforms, and disturbing intrigues, if they could be induced to put our budget in equilibrium simply by economies that are not impossible, we should see the revival accentuated and unfolded; even the agricultural distress, grave as it is, lessened; and the country return to that prosperity which its many resources seem to make its normal condition."

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THE ADMINISTRATION AND THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

MR. MAYNARD, the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, sent to the New York *Evening Post* the following telegram, which appeared in its issue of April 7:

TO THE EDITOR OF THE EVENING POST:
SIR: I have just seen the editorial statement in your issue of the 5th instant, that "pressure of the most extraordinary kind is being brought to bear on the Custom-house in this city by Assistant Secretary Maynard, to compel the officers to do things which he well knows would violate the President's pledges, degrade the public service, and debauch the party in power." The statement is utterly false, and as a journal with a reputation for fairness I shall expect you either to retract the charge or produce the proof that it is true.
J. H. MAYNARD.
WASHINGTON, April 7.

This letter was sent to Senator Hale, the Chairman of the Senate Committee appointed to investigate the operation of the Civil-Service Law under the present Administration, with a request that the Committee would visit this city, and inquire into the truth of the charge which Mr. Maynard so flatly denied. The Committee came accordingly, and the investigation has been made, beginning on Thursday of last week.

We wish to be strictly moderate in describing the result, and shall therefore simply say that there is only one way in which Mr. Maynard can escape the conclusion that in writing that letter he was guilty of deliberate falsehood. That way is by maintaining that the practices which he has just been proved to have indulged in at the Custom-house were not such as to discredit the President and degrade the service. This plea, however, if he put it forward, would be simply an inference of his own. The facts as proved before the Committee are, that he made out a "black list" of fifteen employees in the Appraiser's Department, and called on or "suggested" to Mr. McMullen, the Appraiser, to "recommend" their removal. One of these fifteen was Mr. Sherer, a sugar chemist of the highest standing in his profession, who had entered the service of the Government at its solicitation, and to his own pecuniary disadvantage, and whose removal without charges was therefore a distinct professional discredit. But no charges could Mr. Sherer succeed in obtaining. He was told that there was nothing against him. Mr. Maynard was distinctly informed, both by Mr. McMullen, the Appraiser, and Mr. Moore, the Assistant Appraiser, that the whole fifteen persons whose removal he had "suggested" were valuable officers, in whom their immediate superiors could find no fault, and whose removal would be a distinct loss to the service. Mr. Moore even said to him that if he was removing them as Republicans, he agreed that it was a good thing to do, but that if he was removing them as incompetent, he could tell him that they were in all respects most competent.

Mr. Maynard denied that he was removing them as Republicans, but still persisted that they must be removed. Two exceptions he made—one, that of Mr. Jacobs, whose name he struck from the list on hearing that he was a son of ex-Senator Jacobs of Brooklyn; the other, that of Mr. Leimbach, who took the precaution of going to see him and plead for his retention, in company with "Tim" Campbell, the Congressman from this city. On hearing from "Tim" that Mr. Leimbach was a constituent of his, Mr. Maynard struck his name from the list also. About the others he was inexorable, although as a matter of fact only four of them were actually removed; the remaining nine, as well as the two who were pardoned, were left in, probably owing to the fuss about the affair which began to be made when Mr. Maynard's appearance in politics, through his post-office circular, attracted attention. The pressure brought to bear on the Custom-house officers to effect these removals was sworn to in the most positive manner by its victims, Mr. McMullen and Mr. Moore, and their testimony was supported by Mr. Maynard's own letters, some of which it is not too strong to call shameful reading.

This was not all, however, nor the worst. It was proved that a man named McElwee was dismissed for insubordination and drunkenness. "Influence" went to work to get him restored. His restoration was actually ordered—that is, Mr. McMullen was ordered to recommend his reappointment, and he did it. It was then discovered that the reappointment was illegal, being forbidden by the Civil-Service Regulations, which provide that an officer dismissed for misconduct cannot be restored within a year. Nothing daunted by this, the brave Mr. Maynard got the rule modified to meet the case of this insubordinate drunkard, and had him put back, and he is in the service now. He is the son of the late Surgeon-General of the Confederate Army, and his "influence" is Mahoney, the Brooklyn Congressman.

We shall have more to say about this investigation hereafter. We merely wish now to call attention to the fact that Mr. Maynard has been proved guilty, not only of doing things which discredit the President, considering the promises he has made, and which degrade the public service, but of indulging in denials about it which ought to cause his prompt dismissal from his present place, and would cause it if he were in the service of any other civilized State, except France—for Boulanger's case unhappily proves that in France untruthfulness does not ruin a Government officer.

Secretary Fairchild has telegraphed, or caused or permitted to be telegraphed, from Washington an explanation of Mr. Maynard's doings in the Custom-house in this city, which unfortunately explains nothing. The only new contribution it makes to the subject is an acknowledgment that the Secretary knew of and authorized his subordinate's dismissals, removals, and restorations—something which those who have as much personal respect for Secretary Fairchild as we have will be very sorry to hear, because it is, though a generous sacrifice, a wholly useless one. Nobody—literally nobody—on whom the revelations made by the investigation on Thursday and Friday have made any impression will be in the slightest degree affected by it.

Mr. Fairchild appears to be living in that fool's paradise in which everybody, after three or four years of official life in Washington, seems to take up his abode. Two or three years ago, the apology he now puts forward for Mr. Maynard would have been accepted as, if not conclusive, at least weighty. But after the experience people have had during the last two years of the way the civil service has been managed, or rather mismanaged, in Maryland, in Pennsylvania, in Indiana, and Illinois, and of the indifference with which the remonstrances and protests of the Independents have been treated, of the coolness with which the public continued to be assured, in the teeth of notorious facts, that everything was going on as well as could be expected, and that there was nothing for any reasonable man to complain of, official "explanations" from Washington, whether they take the form of denials or lamentations, count for nothing. In other words, everybody connected with the Administration, from top to bottom, is discredited as an apologist touching Civil-Service Reform.

Therefore, if Mr. Fairchild, or any one else, wants to make it appear that his manipulations of the civil service have all had in view, not the fixing of caucuses and conventions, but the public good, he must go on the witness stand, papers in hand, and stand examination and cross-examination; and he must not take refuge behind "legal evidence" either. He must furnish us with human evidence—that is, the evidence on which men transact the ordinary business of life. For instance, when the Appraiser is ordered to ask for the dismissal of fifteen trusted and competent subordinates, without knowing why, and one of them is restored or exempted on the simple request of Congressman "Tim" Campbell, and another because he is the son of Senator Jacobs, it will not do to say that this was all along of those "sugar frauds," and that if we knew all about those "sugar frauds" we should see it was all right. It cannot be made right without telling all about those "sugar frauds," and convincing us that there are or have been any such frauds. Moreover, when a man of the personal and professional standing of Dr. Sherer is dismissed suddenly without cause assigned, and consequently dismissed with a stain on his reputation, it will not do for either Mr. Fairchild or Mr. Maynard to get rid of him and the public by mysterious nods and winks about "sugar frauds." Dr. Sherer's character is as high as Mr. Fairchild's, as high as Judge Maynard's, as high as President Cleveland's, or that of any member of the Cabinet; and people will never be content with seeing a stigma inflicted arbitrarily on such a man because he has had too much self-respect to get a "Tim" or a "Jake" to intercede for him at the Treasury.

Nor, when it is alleged on oath that Deputy-Collector Davis, and ten subordinates of his, all from Binghamton, N. Y., are allowed to absent themselves frequently from their duties here, in order to manage caucuses and conventions in Broome County, and that Davis got options

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in real estate in Binghamton in order to sell a building site to the Government, and we ask is this true, and if so, how is it to be reconciled with the President's frequent pledges and promises about the political activity of office-holders, it will not do to answer us by crying, "Sugar frauds," and saying that Judge Maynard is a good man. We need a real explanation, not a sham one.

We might multiply these illustrations, but what would be the use? The painful truth is, that we doubt if a single independent voter in this State, of the thousands who supported President Cleveland in 1884, any longer attaches any importance to the utterances of the members of the Administration on the subject of Civil-Service Reform, or any longer refuses to believe that the President's promises and professions have been violated or disregarded on a great scale, with the utmost boldness, in sundry places and in divers manners, and that men like Judge Maynard and Surveyor Beattie have actually been detailed or told off to practise as much civil-service abuse as can be readily concealed or disguised when they are found out and exposed. Of course they must be shielded. It would be the worst kind of baseness to desert or sacrifice them.

We do not mean to say that anybody else has done better either in President Cleveland's or Secretary Fairchild's place than he has done. It will be a good while before we shall find men for high executive places who will be able to resist for a full Presidential term the influence of the purely official or political atmosphere at Washington in producing insensibility to the better sentiment of the country at large, even when it is that better sentiment which has given them their honors. Therefore, it is most desirable that the Senatorial investigation, such as is now pending in New York, into the operation of the Civil-Service Law, should be held annually. Nothing else will prevent its being evaded or nullified on a greater or less scale. Before its passage, the use of the offices as political spoils was a recognized and lawful practice, and there was, therefore, nothing for Congress to overhaul or inspect. Now, all this is changed. An annual visit from a Senatorial Committee to the leading post-offices and custom-houses would undoubtedly prevent such abuses as the present investigation is bringing to light, for they never would be perpetrated if exposure was certain within a year.

TWO NEW FIELDS FOR THE CIVIL-SERVICE RULES.

Secretary Fairchild in doubting, in his speech in Brooklyn the other night, whether the competitive system could be extended much further than it is at present, must have forgotten the Railway Mail Service and the Indian Service. Both of these are now exempt from the operation of the Civil-Service Law; both are, so far as the unofficial eye can see, just as fit fields for its operation as the Treasury or the Post-office, and both are suffering seriously, if not from their exemption from the rules, from the unchecked operation of the spoils system. We have never heard of any reason for exempting either of them. The work of the clerks in the Railway Mail Service is exactly like that of clerks in the post-offices. If there be any difference between them, it lies in the fact that the clerks in the Railway Service need better health, better eyes, defter fingers, and quicker perception and greater energy than the other Post-office clerks. They have not only to do much of their work at night, but have to contend, in sorting letters, reading addresses, and making up the bags, with the motion of the cars, and they have to display great promptness and despatch in putting out the mails at the various stations, and to be more than usually faithful and conscientious, because they are largely exempt from supervision or inspection and from the quick discovery of mistakes. If, therefore, the competitive system be a good way of discovering the best men for any department of the postal service, it is a good way of discovering them for this. If it be necessary in any department, it is still more necessary in this, because the duties are more wearing and responsible than in any other.

Nevertheless, the rules have never been extended to this branch of the service—why, we do not know. We have often inquired, but have never got any answer. In fact, this extension to the Railway Mail Service seems to be regarded in official circles at Washington as one of those things which it is elevating and ennobling to hope for and think about, but which it is useless to expect in a world as imperfect as this is. We believe Mr. Cabot Lodge some time ago introduced a bill in the House making the extension mandatory, but we have lately heard nothing of it, and fear it was intended rather to "make it hot for the Democrats," by calling attention to their enormities, than to curtail their powers of mischief. At present the general impression is, we fancy, both in and out of Congress, that the true reason of the exemption of this branch of the service from the rules was simply a desire, to use Tweed's expression, "to do something for the boys." That is, it was felt that it would not do to take the whole postal service away from the Congressional spoilsmen at once; that some residue of their old power would have to be left them, on the theory that they would not submit to total bereavement. But whatever the cause, the result is that the strain on the Railway Mail Service, considered as patronage, is greater than it was before there were any rules at all. That is, the fewer places there are left in which a Congressman can put his dependents, the more dependents he puts in each place. The situation is somewhat like that of a man who has been used to both whiskey and beer, and from whom the doctor has cut off the whiskey, and who accordingly trebles his consumption of the beer.

The same things may be said, *mutatis mutandis*, of the Indian Service. It, too, if any branch of the Administration needs the rules, needs them sorely. The duties are most responsible, and have to be performed where public observation or criticism of the manner of their performance is impossible. They need not only great intelligence, but very high character, and in some cases special training. In fact, the character and intelligence of men who represent a Christian nation in its dealings with helpless savages cannot be too high. If competitive examinations be a good mode of selecting men for responsible positions, the Indian Service is, in a peculiar degree, the place for it. If the surrender of any branch of the public service to Congressmen as spoils be objectionable anywhere, it is nowhere more objectionable than on the Indian reservations. All the arguments against it in any department apply to it with double force in this. Then why are Indian agents, farmers, and teachers not selected under the rules? We have never heard of any reason, and know of none, except the one we have suggested in the Railway Mail Service—a desire "to do something for the boys"—that is, leave some place where the Congressmen could revel in their old pastimes. The result has been that, owing to the fact that the Commissioner is a Tennesseean, the Indian Service is just now a sort of hunting-ground for the Congressmen of that State, as the Post-office Department used to be for the Indiana men in the old days of Morton and Brady. The Indians do not like it, and suffer from it, but the Indians do not vote or write for the press. Many of the results are discreditable and distressing, but the public does not see them, and has that fortitude under other people's woes for which even the meanest and weakest of us is distinguished.

THE INTERNAL REVENUE.

There is quite general agreement among the opponents of the Mills bill that instead of the reductions it proposes there should be a greater reduction in the internal-revenue taxes. This proposition is endorsed even by prohibitionists like Mr. Kerr of Iowa, and hence must be regarded by the party as its only escape, and may by outsiders be fairly held to be its settled policy. And it is to be further said that a number of protectionists have gone on the record, to which their constituents ought firmly to hold them, in favor of the total abolition of all internal-revenue taxes. The recent Congressional speeches in favor of such abolition are so numerous, and will be scattered so widely during the campaign, that we shall be obliged to pay some attention to them in order to keep abreast of the campaign.

Some indignantly deny that they propose free whiskey. What they do propose is, that the taxation of whiskey shall be left entirely with the States. They endeavor to win favor among their constituents by calling attention to the vast saving this would accomplish in local taxation of real estate and other taxable property. It affords them, in fact, no small bribe to offer to voters having heavy State taxes to pay. Herein lies its strength, but also its weakness, for there are several prohibition States where this bribe can have no force or value. Under their present laws Kansas, Iowa, and

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Maine could get none of the surrendered whiskey revenue. Hence it is on other grounds and with other ends in view that such men as Kerr favor the abolition. Theirs is the high moral view, expressed in his speech, that it is a sin against heaven for any government, State, local, or national, to derive any revenue from the liquor traffic. So they will have nothing but absolutely untaxed whiskey.

Here, then, we have the two alternatives offered by the abolitionists—untaxed whiskey and State-taxed whiskey—offered by them; but what right have they to make the offer? The States must decide the matter, and the abolition of the national whiskey tax will place them under not the slightest legal or moral obligation to replace it with State taxes. If they did not do so, then prohibition would have hard sledding in the States where it has been adopted. With whiskey costing perhaps twice as much per gallon as it now costs per drink, and no Federal inspection, there would be no reason why any inhabitant of a prohibition State should go without it, or go far to get it; and especially since the Supreme Court, in the Bowman case, has opened wide the channels of inter-State transportation of such goods.

But suppose the States did undertake to appropriate the revenue lost to the Government by the abolition. How would that plan work? Could they agree among themselves, and make the tax everywhere equal? Think for a moment of the herculean task of bringing about this exact agreement between thirty-eight States, whose divorce laws, for an instance of something wherein they ought to agree, differ so widely. And remember that here there would be a heavy premium on bad faith in keeping the bargain. The State which first slightly reduced the tax, unless immediately followed by the rest, would gain in public revenue and in private manufacturing prosperity.

But suppose the agreement were kept. Suppose the State Government of each State collected as much tax on these articles as the Federal Government now collects within that State's bounds. What would be the share of each State in this mighty bribe which is offered them? Would there be any equality in the division? It is not hard to find out. Here are the internal-revenue collections in a few States for the fiscal year 1887:

Maine.....	$50,284	Mississippi.	$42,608
Illinois....	24,825,704	New York.	15,101,203
Vermont..	30,120	Alabama..	78,543
Kentucky.	12,417,530	Ohio.....	13,898,227

Illinois would get nearly 500 times as much as Maine, Kentucky 400 times as much as Vermont, New York 375 times as much as Mississippi, and Ohio 175 times as much as Alabama. Between these extremes the inequality would be as great as it possibly could be. How long would the States thus bled to gorge the treasuries of sister commonwealths cling to the arrangement? More than half the internal taxes of last year were collected in four of the States above named. The present Federal surplus is nothing to what theirs would be, and of course these hoards would be drawn from the States whose citizens consumed the goods—but not very long, for the simple reason that no such nonsense would be endured. It is bad enough to be contributing of one's hard earnings to a surplus of a common treasury; but pouring a surplus from one State into the treasury of another is certainly worse.

And there is no other way to avoid free whiskey, if the Federal tax is taken off. Unless the stuff is taxed in the State where it is made, it will flow unchecked and uncontrollable into adjoining States. There is no way to diffuse the tax geographically. At least, no advocate of the abolition has yet proposed one worth considering.

CHILI'S COMMERCE AND FINANCES.

THE last report of the Chilian Secretary of the Treasury serves to accentuate freshly the astonishing commercial advance of what is now, in many respects, the most vigorous and powerful of the South American nations. This advance may be summarily indicated in the statement that, during the last ten years, the country's revenues and foreign trade have each rather more than doubled. The Government, which in 1866 could count upon an income of but little more than $9,000,000, and in 1877 upon one of a little under $17,000,000, can now bring in estimates for 1888 of $32,439,736, and can point, at the same time, to a probable surplus of over $11,000,000. Foreign commerce has for some years reached a total of over $100,000,000 annually, as against $40,000,000 to $60,000,000 for the twenty years prior to 1872. Recalling the comparatively small population of Chili—probably still under three millions—the scale of commercial activity denoted by the figures now given is such as undoubtedly to put Chili at the head of all Spanish America, if not of the entire Latin race, in point of the proportion of foreign commerce to inhabitants. Indeed, we doubt if any nations except Great Britain, Belgium, and Holland surpass her in this respect.

The financial status of Chili is shown with sufficient clearness in the important operations of funding the foreign debt which have been recently consummated. Like most of the other South American republics, Chili had contracted a long series of foreign loans of various amounts and at varying rates of interest. These have now practically all been funded in a new issue of $30,000,000, taken by the Rothschilds, in February, 1886, at 96, with interest at 4½ per cent. The remaining foreign indebtedness brings the total up to $34,601,270, as the account stood at the beginning of 1887. To this must be added a domestic debt of $49,223,429, estimated in paper money, involving an annual interest charge of something more than $2,000,000. This is relatively a large debt, incurred, in great part, for the execution of the vast schemes of public improvements upon which Chili had already entered before the long war with Peru and Bolivia put new burdens upon her. That she will be able to carry them all seems to be the judgment of the money-market, always the best test of national credit.

The revenues of the Government are derived from customs duties, both import and export (the latter principally on saltpetre), from the railroads and telegraphs under public control, from taxes upon incomes, legacies, and land, from patents, sales of public lands, guano, etc. The complicated system of internal taxation is highly burdensome, and with the tariff laws calls urgently for revision, which the Government is anxious that Congress should at once set about. The estimated income for 1888 is $36,000,000, which, with a surplus of $8,000,000 carried over, will put at the disposition of the Government $44,000,000.

An analysis of the foreign trade of Chili, with an eye to determining our share in it, can only result in the same mortifying showing that we make in the commerce of all Central and South America. We have, in fact, had no part at all in the wonderful commercial expansion of Chili. Our trade with that country stands almost at the same figures which it had reached in 1860; and whereas our trade of about $4,000,000 then represented 10 per cent. of the total foreign commerce of Chili, now it stands for less than 4 per cent. In our studied indifference to all "abroad," we have sat idly by to see ourselves distanced even in those articles of manufacture in which we have boasted that we were unexcelled.—Germany, for example, selling Chili, in 1882, $109,000 worth of sewing-machines to our $7,000, $112,000 worth of pianos to our $7,000, $234,000 worth of boots and shoes and $500,000 worth of candles, while we sold not a dollar's worth of either. The figures for 1886, as given in the 'Estadística Comercial' for that year, do not materially differ from those just cited. In all the great manufactures, in iron, cotton, and woollen, even in machinery and railroad materials, we are hopelessly beaten by England and Germany. In lumber we head the list, simply because our rivals have none to sell; as we do also in petroleum.

The current tariff discussions have made the reason for this state of things abundantly clear, as also its remedy. Roving commissions to "investigate" the state of our trade in South America can accomplish little. We observe that Mr. Hopkins, in his recent address before the Chamber of Commerce, asserted that the last one did American interests more harm than good. Nor can much be expected from Pan-American Congresses, in the line of the pending McCreary bill. This is clear from the nature of the references to that measure in the Spanish-American press. Its political aspects, its aim to promote a solidarity of feeling and community of aspiration among the American republics, meet hearty sympathy; its commercial bearings are looked upon with either disgust or ridicule. Indeed, the great republic of the North is regarded with a strange mixture of sentiment throughout all Spanish-speaking America. There is pride in her history and development, a desire to copy her institutions, and eagerness to keep step with the march of her civilization; but there is amazement at her commercial folly—seeking to get everything and give nothing—and laughter at the appeals we make to the

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pockets of the Hispano-Americans in the name of their patriotism.

THE ENGLISH EXCHEQUER OF THE JEWS.

A LEARNED and interesting lecture on "The Exchequer of the Jews of England," which Dr. Charles Gross, a young American scholar, delivered in London last June, is published from the office of the (London) *Jewish Chronicle*. The Exchequer of the Jews was a branch of the great Exchequer of England, and was wholly devoted to the affairs of the Jews. It is referred to by Green, who mentions that Richard I. organized a mixed court of Jews and Christians for the registration of their contracts; and by Hume, who says that the revenue arising from exactions upon the Jews was so considerable that there was a particular court of exchequer set apart for managing it. Not quite so scant a notice may be found in an elaborate treatise on the modern history of the Jews, contributed in 1850 by Selig Cassel to Ersch and Gruber's 'Encyklopädie' (section 2, vol. xxvii, p. 117).

Dr. Gross derives his materials at first hand from researches in the Public Record Office, and even one of his printed authorities, Prynne's 'Demurrer,' is not mentioned at all by the writers named above. He is thus able to present many details which are not otherwise easily accessible, and which are full of interest to the student of history. He is led by his investigations to infer that the Jewish Exchequer was not established until nearly the end of the twelfth century, which would limit its existence to a hundred years, as the Jews were expelled from England in 1290, and were not permitted to return until the time of Cromwell. The position of the Jews in England in the Middle Ages was much the same as on the Continent. They had no legal status. As Green says, they were simply the king's chattels, and their lives and goods were at the king's mercy. Dr. Gross makes the surprising statement that the kings of England posessed greater power in this regard than the rulers of France and Germany. We read in Hallam that the policy of the kings of France was to employ the Jews as a sponge to suck their subjects' money, which they might afterwards express with less odium than direct taxation would incur. In like manner the German emperors, particularly Louis the Bavarian, and Charles IV., in public rescripts expressly declared that the lives and property of the Jews were theirs, to dispose of as to them seemed good. Any pretext was good enough to justify this pretension; but, however the pretexts may have varied in various countries, the practice was everywhere the same. The actual fact was, that the Jews needed the royal protection from indiscriminate spoliation, and had to accept the comparatively discriminating spoliation of the kings as the lesser of two evils. Whatever little was thus left to them was so much clear gain.

Although they were grievously oppressed and robbed, there was occasionally a monarch who took a little pity on their distress and showed that he felt some slight qualms of conscience. Hume relates that in 1255 the Jews, worn out with their sufferings, besought Henry III. for permission to retire with their effects out of the kingdom. The King replied, "How can I remedy the oppressions you complain of? I am myself a beggar. I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had said 300,000, I should not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my son, Prince Edward, 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I must have money, no matter where it comes from or how." He then sold the Jews to his brother Richard, Earl of Cornwall, in order, as Matthew of Paris says, that those whom the one brother had flayed the other might embowel. It is gratifying to know that Richard took compassion on their poverty.

The Exchequer of the Jews was an ingenious device for enabling the kings of England to levy contributions upon the property of the Jews. Its principal officials were stationed at Westminster, and were known as "Justices of the Jews," or "Wardens of the Jews." They varied in number from two to five. They were barons of the Exchequer, and were appointed by the king. There were also subordinate officers, such as a keeper of the rolls and writs, an escheator, and clerks. The "Presbyter of all the Jews of England," who seems to have held his office for life, was also an officer of the Jewish Exchequer. Dr. Gross conjectures that he scrutinized and verified doubtful Hebrew contracts, and would be appealed to by the Justices for information concerning disputed points of Jewish usage. All contracts between Jews and Christians had to be made in writing in the presence of two Jews, two Christians, (these being the four chirographers), two scribes and two clerks. The charters or acknowledgments of debt were in the form of a chirograph, *i. e.*, two duplicate deeds written upon one membrane, afterwards severed into two parts along an indented line, dividing horizontally the word *chirographum*. The part with the seal of the debtor remained in the hands of the Jew; the counterpart was deposited in the common chest or ark, which had three locks, the two Christians keeping one key, the two Jews a second, and the two clerks a third. There were also three seals distributed in like manner. When the debt was paid, the Jew wrote out a release or quitclaim, on presenting which to the custodian of the chest the debtor received the counter-chirograph duly cancelled. If the counterfoil of an obligation was not deposited in a chest of the chirograph, the Jew could not lawfully claim the money due him; if he released the debtor privily, *i. e.*, without giving notice to the chirographers or to the Justices of the Jews, the debtor could be called upon to pay a second time. In order to sell or transfer a debt, it was necessary for the Jews to secure permission from the King.

It will be seen that this system has some resemblance to our present system of recording deeds and mortgages and satisfactions of mortgages; and it may be that it was originally designed to serve a similar purpose, and to prevent Jewish creditors from claiming more than was justly due them, or Christians from evading the payment of their just debts. So far as it performed this function it was perhaps beneficial to both parties, and particularly to the Jews. But it developed two other very important functions: it enabled the kings to gauge the wealth of the Jews, and, secondly, to collect the contributions which they did not pay willingly.

The chief source of crown revenue from the Jewry consisted of tallages, which were arbitrary taxes levied at the pleasure of the king, and sometimes amounted to enormous sums. It is generally said that King John once wrested from the Jews a sum equal to a year's revenue of his realm. If any one refused to pay his tallage, or perhaps only the last instalment of it, it was the custom of the Exchequer functionaries to confiscate the debts that were due him. When a tallage was contemplated, delegates of the Exchequer went to the various towns where chests of chirographs were kept, and made an inventory of all the obligations found therein, which were afterwards entered in the rolls of the Justices of the Jews. Occasionally even the chests themselves were brought to Westminster. These lists served to give the King a clue as to the tallageability of the Jews, and afforded him a means of compensation in case they did not pay the impost. The chirographs of confiscated debts were sent from the local chests to Westminster, where the debtors came to liquidate them and to secure the cancelled obligation. A similar proceeding is not entirely unknown to a generation still upon the stage. In 1860 the Confederate States Government declared all debts due by Southern merchants to their Northern creditors confiscated, and called upon the debtors to pay the money into the public treasury, thus taking a leaf out of the book of the English kings of the thirteenth century.

Besides its fiscal functions, the Jewish Exchequer was the court that tried all civil and criminal actions in which a Jew was concerned. Its jurisdiction was exclusive, other courts being warned not to interfere with pleas belonging to the Justices of the Jews. Dr. Gross declares that on the whole it redounded to their benefit, and was the ægis of Israel against excessive popular and baronial violence. It accorded them more justice than they could have expected from the local civil and ecclesiastical courts. On the other hand, he says (and his view seems a correct one) that the constant confiscations by the Royal Exchequer of debts due to the Jews added greatly to the hatred of the Jews that culminated in their expulsion. It seems very likely, indeed, that the great barons who owed money to the Jews, much preferred to deal with a class of creditors whom they could browbeat or cajole by turns, and placate by a payment on account, rather than face the monarch whose need of money was pressing, and who had the means of enforcing his demands. In Magna Charta, King John agreed that, if a debt should happen to fall into his hands, he would not take more than the property pledged in payment of the debt. In 1257 the petition of the barons prays Henry III. to remedy the grievance that the lands of wards, pledged to the Jews for debts, fall into the hands of the great men of the realm, who will not give them up again, even when payment of the debts is offered.

Dr. Gross concludes with an appeal to the Jews of England to give to the world the still unpublished records of their past by printing a selected portion of the rolls of parchments in the Public Record Office containing the memoranda and transactions of the Justices of the Jews. Of these there are some 122 rolls, consisting of about 720 membranes, of which the average size is about two feet long and eight inches wide. His testimony to their great value as affording material for Anglo-Jewish history will be readily accepted by his readers, and it is to be hoped that his suggestion will be followed up. If an occasion of this kind presented itself to the public-spirited and wealthy Jews of New York, it would be improved without delay.

THE PAPAL RESCRIPT.

DUBLIN, May 11, 1888.

FOR many months it has been felt that some definite expression of opinion on Irish affairs was impending from the Vatican. British influence was evidently being exercised to this end. Few, however, were prepared for the rescript that has reached us, containing such a complete condemnation of the Plan of Campaign and boycotting, untempered by any expression of sympathy, which would have seemed so natural,

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towards the Irish movement in its general drift and character. So momentous a step was not taken without full consideration. Monsignor Persico, on whose impressions the rescript was probably formulated, was in Ireland for some time; he associated with all classes, consulted men of every shade of opinion, and, I believe, made every effort to arrive at fair conclusions. Yet, if we are to judge by the rescript, he has not grasped the salient points of the situation, a failure which would not be surprising in any stranger after a few months of personal inquiry into the affairs of any country. A bare condemnation of some of the means used to advance the cause is a poor result of studying the enigmatical Irish question by an authority so deeply interested in its solution as the Vatican. This is but another, added to the innumerable instances that might be cited, of the mistakes made in supposing that difficult political and social problems can be best studied on the spot. Carried away by individual cases and experiences, the inquirer loses sight of those general principles and considerations which afford the only clue to a just estimate. Prof. Cairnes's conclusions regarding the principles really at stake in your war of the Rebellion, arrived at in the seclusion of Trinity College, Dublin, after consulting those who had devoted their attention to American affairs, and studying writers and thinkers on both sides, were far more correct than they would have been if derived from a brief sojourn at the seat of war.

The rescript virtually requires the Irish people to surrender at discretion. The Plan of Campaign might be abandoned—it never had Mr. Parnell's full approval, and has always been somewhat doubtfully accepted by thoughtful men; but to receive into Christian fellowship those "who in the exercise of their right take vacant farms," and those who support the Government in the present conflict, would be to abandon the very key of the position. That Monsignor Persico should arrive at any other conclusion was not likely. The envoy is an ecclesiastic. The Vatican regards everything from an ecclesiastical point of view. Men and nations are important to it only in so far as they affect the supremacy of the Church. Leaving his own country covered with the wrecks of suppressed monastic institutions, a country where ecclesiastics are fettered in many ways; where, if we are to judge by such books as Garibaldi's 'Memorie,' hatred of his order has deeply penetrated large classes in the community—Monsignor Persico comes to Ireland to be fêted by high and low; to find the progress of that order entirely unimpeded; to see splendid monastic institutions rising on all hands; to find industrial and reformatory establishments managed by ecclesiastics enjoying large and increasing Government grants, practically uncontrolled in their application; to find the Government, the representatives of the class in England hitherto most opposed to Catholicism, ready to promise anything if only agrarian and political turmoil were subdued; to find also the Irish people as Catholic as possible, and Catholicism in the dominant country—largely through the influence of men like Cardinals Newman and Manning—more respected than ever before since the Reformation. Perceiving all this, could he conclude otherwise than that a cessation of the present struggle would be desirable?

Probably neither he nor the Vatican was prepared for the spirit in which the rescript has been received. The bishops have not yet spoken, but, whatever attitude they take up, can hardly materially influence the situation. The Unionists have performed a complete volte-face regarding the Papal supremacy. "I am beginning to think that we Protestant home-rulers are the only Protestants left in Ireland," writes an Episcopal clergyman from the south. "Where am I at all?" said another of the same cloth in my hearing. "Am I a Catholic or am I a Protestant? Where am I to go to seek spiritual consolation—to Rome, to my Primate, or to the Presbyterians? I wonder could the Quakers give me any?" A portrait of his Holiness is advertised as exhibited by the chief Conservative print-seller in town. A Unionist comic paper has a cartoon this week in which Erin is depicted taking refuge on a chair from a swarm of cockroaches, "Dillon," "Davitt," "Parnell," "Gladstone," "Home Rule," etc., while his Holiness as St. Patrick, an aureole round his head, deluges them with scalding "Pope's decree vermin-killer," and comforts her with the words: "Have patience, Erin, and I will rid you of the wretched vermin."

On the other hand, the Catholic representatives of public opinion meet the rescript in a spirit of most determined opposition, which, in any other cause, would have the sympathy of all Protestants, supposed lovers of liberty and independence. The *Freeman's Journal*, after an elaborate inquiry into "What the decree really is," concludes that it is binding only in so far as the supposed facts on which it is based are true; that the Plan of Campaign is condemned by the rescript only where the rent objected to "has been fixed by mutual consent," and where the law courts have afforded an opportunity of their being fixed "within the limits of equity"; and that boycotting is unjustifiable only where it has proved "a new form of persecution and proscription, ruthlessly put in force against persons who are satisfied with, and are prepared to pay, the rent agreed on with their landlord." *United Ireland* is more emphatic:

"Their position [that of the Irish people] now is simple. They will regard this pronouncement of the Fathers of the Inquisition as a pious opinion founded upon grotesquely fallacious premises, and draw a salutary warning from it of the dangers of coming to conclusions upon imperfect and misleading information. . . . This circular will pass, like the one six years ago [that fulminated in vain against the testimonial to Mr. Parnell], without making more than a momentary ripple on the consciences of the Irish people, and yet without impairing in the faintest degree their respect for the authority and wisdom of the princes of the Church."

The last reservation is as puzzling to some Protestant minds as are the sentiments with which the paper begins the consideration of the subject:

"Divine it [the Church] is, and perfect, informed with the Wisdom and the Spirit of its Founder, the Rock of Ages, the Lamp of Truth, the Refuge and the Ark of fallen human kind. The Church never makes mistakes; its human engineers sometimes do. The Divine Inspiration cannot err; the clerks, the secretaries, the dignitaries, the individual human beings who man its bureaus, can err just as freely as any other men."

John Dillon is clearer:

"It does seem to me a curious thing that one of the great grounds on which we decline—and I think justly decline—to be ruled from Westminster is that we object, as every people in the world who have ever tasted of liberty, or who have any self-respect, object, to be ruled by men in temporal concerns who don't understand the circumstances under which they live. And are we to be told that while we struggle and make sacrifices, and have maintained for years the desperate strife against a foreign rule at Westminster, we are to submit or accept the foreign rule of a number of Italians in Rome, no matter how holy they may be? It is a monstrous doctrine; it is a doctrine which, I venture to say, the authorities in Rome will never attempt to maintain, and which, if they did attempt to maintain to-morrow, the Irish race would stand up like one man and refuse to submit to it. No, the Irish people have shown, as I contend, in the face of almost unparalleled difficulties and sufferings and dangers, that the sacred cause of liberty is as dear to them at least as to any other race of men who inhabit this earth. They have shown that they will submit to no foreign domination on the soil of Ireland. And while we have shown in the past, and shall show in the future, a devotion to the Head of the Church in whose doctrines we have been reared, and our fathers before us, which will compare favorably with the devotion of any of the great Powers of Europe, or of our friends the English Catholics, we will show also, I trust and believe, that we know what liberty means, and we know how to draw the distinction between devoted obedience to the Church in spiritual matters and absolute independence of everybody except the Irish people in temporal matters. . . . The people of Ireland would be idiots if they dropped these weapons. No one who has not lived among the people of Ireland, no one who has not Irish blood in his veins, and who has not been born and bred up among the circumstances in which we are placed, is fit to judge of the policy which the Irish people should follow and adopt."

These, and similar pronouncements from other leading Catholic speakers, have been received with vociferous applause by the assemblages addressed. They show the spirit in which the rescript will probably be regarded by the Irish people in the main, while there are, of course, many Catholics outside or on the borders of the National ranks inclined to say, "We told you so," and who will accept it much more literally and obediently. On the whole, the incident will be beneficial. William O'Brien and John Dillon meant only what was right and just in promulgating the Plan of Campaign; as worked by them directly it was used only in cases where a desperate remedy was needed for a desperate position. But the promulgation established a dangerous principle, and conduced to aggravate the tendency, already too rife here, to harry all landlords, good and bad, and to render as difficult as possible the collection of all rents, however moderate. So with boycotting. There is every difference between the social ostracism of those who take farms from which have been evicted tenants willing to pay just rent, and "boycotting" as practised in Kerry, where harmless men are shot down in the midst of their agonized families by cold-blooded ruffians, and where those who have helped in the slightest degree to convict the criminals are shunned like lepers. The rescript will compel the people at large to consider their ways more narrowly than they have heretofore done, and will prevent the clergy from following too blindly and invariably the prejudices and passions of their flocks. Moreover, it will further the cause of Home Rule in England, by tending to dissociate from it the idea of Rome rule. In the interests of liberty and independence of judgment all the world over, it will have good effects. While not rendering the Irish less Catholic in all that is best in Catholicism, it must help to undermine their theoretically implicit submission to the Vatican as a power in the ordinary affairs of life. John Dillon's indignant denunciation of foreign domination cannot be taken to apply only within the four seas of Ireland.

Seldom were the Irish people calmer, more resolute and determined than they now are. Their national cause has shed much that was base, and is being urged upon a distinctly higher plane, which facilitates its being further joined and influenced by the noblest and purest minds in the United Kingdom. This tendency was strikingly illustrated by the proceedings at the Eighty Club the other evening, and especially by Mr. Parnell's speech. D. B.

—Since the foregoing was written, a letter

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has appeared from Archbishop Walsh, the most responsible Irish ecclesiastical politician. It is dated from Rome last Monday. In it he says (the italics are his own):

"The Irish people, whether at home or abroad, will, I trust, accept my assurance that neither the Nationalist movement nor the National League is in the smallest degree injuriously affected by the recent decree. Beyond this I do not wish to go. As no one would be justified in supposing that the Irish cause is even indirectly censured by the recent act of the Holy See, so neither should we be justified in asserting that the Holy See was influenced in it by a desire to hasten on the triumph of our great constitutional movement. *But that this will be the necessary result of what has taken place, I, for my part, have not the shadow of a doubt.*"

THE NEW GALLERY.

LONDON, May 11.

THE opening of the New Gallery on the 8th inst. by invitation to a very crowded private view, and on the 9th to the general public, has been anxiously expected by artists and lovers of art as an event of the greatest importance. All doubts and fears as to the success of this undertaking are now at rest, and have given place to the unlimited satisfaction of artists, critics, and society in general.

All praise is due to Messrs. Hallé and Comyns Carr, the directors, who, in the incredibly short space of three months, have erected the most delightful picture gallery we have yet seen in London, and they are to be congratulated on their courage in carrying on their work in the face of so many difficulties and doubts and such half-hearted support from many of the artists themselves. It is true that they had the entire sympathy of Burne-Jones, Watts, and Alma-Tadema, and the certainty of their sending all the work they could have ready and could dispose of to the new exhibition, although the latter two were under the obligation to send to the Academy also. J. E. Millais, Holman Hunt, W. B. Richmond, A. Parsons, Onslow Ford, Giovanni Costa, M. R. Corbett, H. Herkomer, and A. Legros also promised pictures, although they determined at the same time to give some of their work to the Grosvenor and to the Royal Academy. It was feared by the pusillanimous that the three exhibitions could not flourish at the same time, and that to compete with the well-established Grosvenor Gallery would be more than rash. Perhaps under better management the Grosvenor might have been a formidable rival, but now that the three exhibitions are open, the artists who chose to remain faithful to Sir Coutts Lindsay are very indignant at the want of courtesy and discrimination shown them in the hanging of their works, and also at the exclusion of certain pictures at the last minute which had been personally chosen and solicited by the director himself. Complaints are very general on those grounds, and not a little surprise is expressed at the lack of management and of common politeness, in such strong contrast with the treatment received in former years.

The entrance of the New Gallery is in Regent Street through a narrow passage (which we hear is to be converted into a more appropriate entrance), to a beautiful marble hall of *giallo antico*, round which runs a gallery supported by columns of cipollino marble; a fountain plays in the centre, and shrubs and plants in groups serve to set off the sculptures in marble and bronze here displayed. This hall is of very charming effect, both in color and arrangement: the balustrade running round it, at present gilt and ordinary in design, is to be changed for small columns of alabaster ornamented with gold. From below, one sees the water-color drawings, pastels, and silverpoint studies in the balcony, hung on a background of gold Japanese paper.

The chief pieces of sculpture are Prof. Legros's "Young Satyr," exquisitely modelled and executed with great knowledge and ease; Mr. Swynnerton's large design for a fountain; Mr. Bates's "Peace and War"; a dead Christ bas-relief in bronze by Miss Elinor Hallé; and a small statuette of the "Mower," by H. Thornycroft, with many interesting busts and medals.

On entering the west gallery the work of Burne-Jones faces us. Those who are in sympathy with his pictures are unanimous in declaring that he has surpassed himself in producing the most exquisite piece of pure bright color in his "Danaë and the Tower of Brass"; the most powerful of all his designs in "The Doom Fulfilled," besides the most perfect drawing of the nude in both the figures of Andromeda. In the first of the series, "The Rock of Doom," the maiden is chained to the rock near the shore, expecting her death, while Perseus, passing in the air with his winged sandals and helmet of darkness, first sees her. The action of Perseus exactly expresses that he is independent of any firm footing: he just skims above rock and sea, his feet nearly touching them—his handsome face full of surprise and devotion as he gazes at the maiden whose timid, resigned look answers his. Joppa is the background—very gray, with sober bits of green cliff between; the sea is blue-green; Perseus, in sombre armor beautifully designed, serves as a foil to the ivory pallor of the naked Andromeda. The idealization of the female form is very successful, and a study for this figure in the gallery above, and others for Perseus's armor, show how thoroughly this master prepares himself for every part of his design. There is no bright color anywhere, and yet the whole work is quite powerful and harmonious. In the companion picture, "The Doom Fulfilled," Perseus is slaying the monster after having fought with it. The long, dark-green, slimy dragon is a wonderful invention. In its coils Perseus is balancing himself while he is prepared to strike the cruel head still hissing defiance at him. The maiden, seen from behind, chained to her rock, which makes the background to the coils of the dragon, is anxiously watching the combat. The design and carrying out of every detail leave nothing to be desired, and the sombre color harmonizes perfectly with the character of the subject. Between these two Perseus subjects is placed the taller picture of "Danaë and the Tower of Brass." The slim, fair-haired maiden, clad in a closely pleated inner garment of purple, with a drapery of bright crimson wrapped round her, stands beside a dark cypress tree. Her pale face looks startled and full of foreboding of a disastrous future, as through an open bronze door she sees past the cool courtyard a troop of workmen erecting a brazen tower, already well advanced. King Acrisius stands among them urging them to activity. It is in this picture that we have all the magic power and intensity of color of the earlier work of this great painter, combined with all the delicate, sensitive workmanship of these later years. Every inch of canvas is exquisitely finished: the deep-blue flags in the foreground, the paving-stones of the yard beyond, the cypress tree, and the blue-green bronze door—all are treated with minute skill, forming as a whole a delightful harmony.

Immediately opposite to Burne-Jones is Legros's "Femmes en Prière," a very perfect work, and we greet with delight the appearance of this painter after several years of absence from exhibitions. Here we have austere tints of gray, black, white, and flesh-color in the kneeling figures of the praying women, of whom the one in front holds a lighted taper. Their faces, framed in white caps, have the innocent, healthful charm of village life. The painting is throughout very masterly, especially in the treatment of the masses of warm black in the women's cloaks. There is also a "Dead Christ" by Legros in this same room, less interesting as a subject, but, for its knowledge of anatomy and in its appropriate realization, equally fine. Holman Hunt exhibits a portrait of a gentleman, careful and hard and metallic in execution, as most of his recent work is. In G. F. Watts's "Angel of Death," No. 30, we see a grand, powerful figure in slaty gray, with head swathed in white, the figure encircled by strong black wings, holding in her lap a dead baby, whose face her hand hides from our view. The angel, in her whole attitude, expresses consolation and tenderness rather than relentless power. The execution is in Watts's best manner, with the peculiar charm of suggestiveness which he considers appropriate for allegorical subjects, though the baby seems scarcely enough carried out, its hands being hidden in the angel's lap without sufficient reason for their disappearance. Although not one of his best works as a whole, this is a very characteristic one, and bears the magic touch of true genius.

Among the imaginative works must be mentioned Mr. J. M. Strudwick's little picture of "Acrasia." The knight, in beautifully designed armor, sleeps in the "bower of bliss." He has been pelted with roses, and is lying in the shade of an apple-tree, through whose branches beautiful girls, in closely pleated white draperies, are seen watching his slumbers. One, who plays on a lute, is probably intended for Acrasia, the "false enchantress" of Spenser's tale. This work of Strudwick's carries perfection of finish and design to the very highest point, and yet, although each leaf of the apple-tree is most carefully drawn and studied, as also each plant among the grass, the whole is perfectly in keeping, and has a misty feeling of dreamland in its wan color, a perfume of romance and the ideal world, strongly differing from its impressionist neighbor, "Homewards," by E. Stott of Oldham. Nothing could illustrate better the unsatisfactory nature of exhibitions than the proximity of these two works, as different in aim as in manner. Mr. Stott's early spring-green landscape, with a rosy-cheeked ploughboy driving calves beside a stream, makes Strudwick's work look colorless, while Mr. Stott's study looks too crude and sketchy beside this highly finished picture. Even the best intentions to hang everything most advantageously must fail somewhere, and I only mention this instance as an example of the disappointment a painter feels at an accident which lessens for the time the value of his work.

Sir John Millais sends two female studies, the one, No. 99, "Forlorn," very garish in color. A maiden, leaning on a balcony on which is thrown a Persian rug, looks far away towards an evening sky, with distant country. Her dress is red, and hastily painted in streaks; her face is of a chalky white, with carmine cheeks, quite out of harmony with the background. "The Last Rose of Summer" (No. 157), in the same room, is more carefully painted, though lacking any definite intention, as do most of the works of this master of late years. A girl in a dark-red cloak over an orange-colored skirt, with a broad-brimmed black hat, stands before us, holding a rose; the background is distant

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gray sky. It is a pleasing and forcibly painted portrait of the model, and that is all.

Tadema has sent five works, but of these only one (No. 131), "He loves me, he loves me not," gives an adequate idea of his skill. This artist always seems to us at his best in his smaller canvases, and this one, for freshness of detail, clever painting, and grace of arrangement, leaves nothing to be desired. Two girls, in their clinging draperies, are lounging on a couch, while one of them pulls a marguerite to pieces. The window behind them is open, and between the blind and the window-sill one sees the tops of temples and palaces and bits of gardens and trees. In the room all is cool and subdued, but beyond the fierce light of a southern summer touches everything. In "Venus and Mars" we have a small child in a pink-red shirt, holding a toy; behind him is the inevitable white marble balustrade, beyond which is a vividly blue sea. The oyster-shells on the ledge are very perfectly painted, but the *tout ensemble* is decidedly unpleasant. The sketch for the "Heliogabalus" now at the Academy, and two portraits, which look true enough to nature, but have no living quality, complete his contributions.

Mr. C. E. Hallé, the director, exhibits a large picture of "Paolo and Francesca," a well-worn theme, which he has treated with more movement and expression than we are wont to expect. The lovers are in a garden, the book is falling to the ground; Paolo, on his knees, is clasping Francesca's hands; her face is full of ecstasy. The draperies are harmonious in color; in the foreground a tiny fountain plays, and we cannot help finding fault with its miniature dimensions, which must strike the most unpractised eye as serving neither for use nor for beauty. Mr. Hallé sends also a portrait of the late Stephen Heller, the delightful pianist and composer, and a lady's full-length portrait, as refined and graceful as his portraits of women always are.

There is no lack of portraits at the New Gallery. Herkomer, Holl, E. A. Ward, Fairfax Murray, John Sargent, Shannon, John Collier, Mrs. Swynnerton, and W. B. Richmond, all have exhibited, and most of them more than one. They are generally good examples of their different manners, but no one has shown so many and such thoroughly good works in this line as W. B. Richmond. His portrait of Miss Gladstone (for Newnham College) is admirably painted. The lady looks austere and dignified; the color of the dress is a subdued dark red. Sir Edward Malet, in full court dress, is also a very interesting work by the same artist. Mrs. Andrew Lang and Mrs. Cunningham Graham are excellent, both in tasteful arrangement and in the care with which all the detail is painted and chosen; but most delightful of all is the portrait of Mrs. Drummond. This lady wears a dress of dull heliotrope-colored brocade, the background being dark blue. The movement of figure and hands is very graceful, and the pale, expressive face turning towards the spectator seems about to speak. No wonder that Mr. Richmond is so popular as a painter of fine ladies, for he spares no pains to make each portrait a picture which will always be interesting even when the likeness will count for nothing.

I pass by many large compositions filling up spaces on the walls, because they seem deficient in interest and ordinary in treatment. The landscapes are very good and of every variety. The poetic school is well represented by Giovanni Costa of Rome, No. 77, "The First Smile of Morn," by M. R. Corbett, who also sends a morning effect of sunlight striking a pine wood—an Italian landscape of great beauty. Mark Fisher sends spring effects, with the exquisitely dappled sky which is his specialty. G. H. Boughton's "Harvest of the Dawn" represents him fairly well: the mushroom gatherers are rather dull-like in action, but the landscape has more color than most of his later work. William Padgett and David Murray send many canvases of merit, and Arthur Lemon, compositions with centaurs of remarkable imaginative power. In "A Struggle," No. 48, two centaurs are wrestling near the sea on a dreary cold wave-beaten shore; in "A Vendetta," the scene is in a forest glade beside a pool: the centaur has been struck by an arrow, and is this time struggling with death. The composition of the landscape and its color are very fine.

There is no space to write of the water-colors in the balcony and the silverpoint drawings and studies for pictures, although they form an interesting feature of the exhibition. I hope that imaginative art may have found encouragement and a just appreciation in the New Gallery, and that this new venture may prove as successful as it promises to be. The system of hanging each picture with a space between it and its neighbor, which has been adhered to, is much to be commended. The walls are covered with National Gallery red flock paper.

Correspondence.

A SWISS POPULAR ASSEMBLY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some time since you published an interesting account of some researches made at the City Library of Trèves by Mr. George L. Burr, Instructor in History in this University.

I now send an extract from a letter recently received, giving an account of his visit to the Landesgemeinde of Canton Appenzell, thinking it may interest your readers, as giving an example of democratic procedure, pure and simple.—I remain very truly yours,

Andrew D. White.

Cornell University, May 22, 1888.

"We were welcomed at the home of Oberrichter Sturzenegger, and given a window which looked out directly into the great square, into which the twelve thousand odd voters were closely packed. All came *anständig gekleidet*—as the law provides—in solemn black, and with the swords of their ancestors at their sides. At the appointed hour of eleven, the Landammann (no longer Colonel Roth, who has claimed the exemption from the burdens of office to which every functionary is entitled at the end of six years), the six other members of the Regierungsrath, and the Land-Weibel, or crier, were escorted with great ceremony to the platform which stood near one end of the square. The proceedings were opened by a moment of silent prayer, and by a national anthem which was sublimely sung. Then the Landammann delivered an address which, judging by its reception, must have been eloquent, though at our distance I could hear only occasional sentences. Thereupon the assembly proceeded to its first order of business—the auditing of the year's accounts. The question was upon their acceptance as correct, or the appointment of an auditing committee, and they were accepted outright by an enormous majority. Never have I seen a more curious sight than the coming up of all those white hands out of that black crowd. Next came the election of officers. The question was first put always upon the *re*election of the present incumbent; and in every case the reëlection was almost unanimous—a fact which is perhaps less surprising when one remembers that the highest salary paid to any public official in Appenzell is two hundred francs a year—the judges of its Supreme Court get six francs a day, but only during the session. As Judge Sturzenegger laughingly said, it is the way the canton manages to lay a tax on brains—for every man elected is bound to accept or move out. He added that there is at present in the canton only *one* regularly educated lawyer, and he has to eke out an existence by keeping a *Wirthschaft* besides.

"Funnily enough, only over the unimportant but noisy office of Land-Weibel was there a sharp contest. As the chief qualification is a stentorian voice, each of the candidates was required to recommend himself to the voters in a short speech, and you can think of nothing more comical than this competition; for, whether the aspirant piped or roared at the outset, he always ended in a squeak.

"The manner of taking the votes is singularly fair to minorities. We had occasion to note this, especially in the filling of the two vacancies in the Regierungsrath. A mass of nominations were made, and taken down in writing. Then the question was put separately on the name of *each* candidate. From these the *two* who had received the fewest votes were now eliminated, and the question taken on each of the remainder, and so on until only two were left, when the decision was, of course, apparent, though more than once the vote had to be taken over and over before the Landammann would trust his eyes to declare it. On the announcement of the final vote, the position of the successful candidate in the crowd was shown by the thrusting up of all the swords in his vicinity, and the band sallied forth to escort him to the platform. For the second vacancy the question was then put again, as before, upon all the candidates but the elected one.

"After the elections came the legislation. Only three bills were submitted. The first, the repeal of a practically obsolete law for the guarantee of cattle, met with no opposition. The second, the proposed forcible closing of the *Wirthschaften* at twelve at night, was rejected by a considerable majority. The third, providing that even *resident* peddlers should pay a license, and that a license—not yearly, as with us, but once for all, at the opening of the business—should also be required of the keepers of *Wirthschaften* (a bill, that is, to abridge the right of every citizen to peddle or sell wine as he pleases), was in both its clauses voted down overwhelmingly. The defeat of these measures was explained to us, and I think justly, as proceeding far less from any opposition to the ends they sought than from suspicion and impatience at their encroachment upon personal liberty.

"The business being ended, there remained only the oath. It was read solemnly by the venerable clerk, and taken first by the Landammann. Then, with bared heads, and three fingers lifted high in air, that army of freemen listened to its terrible clauses of vow and imprecation, unchanged from the Middle Ages, and rumbled with one voice its repetition of them. No man dared be silent in that throng. Then came another anthem, and the Landsgemeinde was over. It had lasted three hours.

"Never have I seen such perfect order, such perfect quiet—not even in a body of a tenth its size. Yet there were no police, not so much as a constable. Once or twice, after the most exciting votes, a slight murmur passed through the host, but a cry or two of 'Quiet!' (*Ruhig!*), as the business began again, brought a hush, as of death. The only break in the gravity of the proceedings was during the comical scene of the Land-Weibel competition. Did you ever hear twelve thousand men smile? It was like the ripple, dash, and vanish of a wind-blown thunder-shower.

"We dined with our Oberrichter, saw with him the modest splendors of the cantonal capital, and under his escort were off over the mountain on our homeward tramp."

CLEAR, THE ADJECTIVE, USED SUBJECTIVELY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Upwards of forty years ago, during my early days in India, I transmitted to the late Dr. Worcester a large quantity of materials supplementing his Dictionary published in 1846. Among the things which I then remarked on, as overpassed in it, was the subjective sense of the adjective *clear*, a sense for which I furnished him with excellent and abundant authority. This, to my surprise, when he brought out a new edition of his Dictionary in 1860, I found to be unrecorded there, though he had availed himself of hundreds of the particulars supplied by me. Nor has any other dictionary that I am acquainted with recognized it. That, however, it has been in our language close on three centuries, and that it has the practical counte-

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nance of numerous authors of repute, will appear from the quotations and references which follow:

"I am *cleere* in it, that many then in that darkness did (as the proverbe is) 'See day at a very little hole.'" "I am so *cleere* in this, as in any of the two former, that there is no such difficulty in the faculty of reading," &c. Rev. Samuel Hieron (1604), *Works* (1624), Vol. I., pp. 500, 513.

"Some Preachers . . . . published that Doctrine, affirming that Saint Austine had said so only in heat of disputation against the Pelagians, and not because he was *clear* in that opinion." Sir Nathanael Brent (1616), translation of *Father Paul's History of the Council of Trent* (ed. 1676), p. 168.

"For my own part, I am *clear*, without scruple, that what we have resolved is according to law." Sir Benjamin Ruddierd (1628), in Dr. Thomas Fuller's *Ephemeris Parliamentaria* (1654), p. 155.

"Yet we know, that, at the same time, there were Philosophers at Rome that were most *clear* and full in their Belief and Faith of it." Dr. Richard Burthogge (1674), *Causa Dei* (1675), p. 316.

"But this the lawyer was *clear* in, that his client might move his lodging." John Asgill, *Apology*, &c. (1713), p. 21.

"His disciples themselves were not so *clear* in their belief of him," &c. *Id.*, *The Metaphorphosis of Man*, &c. (1727), p. 27.

"In all the things I nam'd I am very *clear*." Dr. Bernard Mandeville, *An Enquiry into the Origin of Honour*, &c. (1732), p. 238.

"The Event can only determine my Judgment in this matter; but [I] am *clear* in this, . . I am *clear* in his having my vote to be Captain of the Band." W. Horsley (1746), *The Fool* (1748), Vol. I., p. 6. Also in Vol. I., p. 86, and Vol. II., pp. 214, 297.

"And doth he pretend to the Gift of discerning the Spirits, so as to be *clear* which, or whether any, of them had it?" Bp. George Lavington, *The Enthusiasm of Methodists and Papists Compared*, Vol. II. (1751), p. 5 (ed. 1754). Also at p. 57.

"I am *clear* in it, that a play must be his next undertaking." Miss Catherine Talbot (1754), in *Letters between Miss Elizabeth Carter and Miss Talbot*, &c. (ed. 1809), Vol. II., p. 190.

"Your being so very *clear* that he was made on purpose for me." Miss Elizabeth Carter (1765), *ibid.*, Vol. III., p. 255.

"I am not *clear* as to the particulars; but there was a prodigious riot," &c. Mrs. James Harris (1769), in *Letters of the First Earl of Malmesbury*, &c. (1870), Vol. I., p. 179. Also in Vol. I., p. 186 (1770).

"Why, he is *clear* that his client never gave such a note." Samuel Foote, *The Lame Lover* (1770), Act II., Scene I.

"Of this I am *clear*, that, if it stood over to another year," &c. Arthur Murphy (about 1776), in George Colman the Younger's *Posthumous Letters*, &c. (1820), p. 204.

"Both Count Goertz and myself, however, were not *clear* of the manner and time in which he was disposed this alliance should take place." James Harris, First Earl of Malmesbury (1782), in his *Diaries and Correspondence* (1844), Vol. I., p. 521.

"I am by no means *clear* that I might not have been a wealthy merchant, or an eminent lawyer, at this very moment." R. B. Sheridan (about 1784), in Thomas Moore's *Memoirs* of him (1825), Vol. I., p. 145.

"I am not *clear*, from this information, that the profits arising from the entertainments at the Pantheon are included." *The New Spectator* (1784), No. XX., p. 5.

"I am *clear*, without doubt, that my sons' concert is after the will and order of Providence." Rev. Charles Wesley (before 1788), in Southey's *Life of Wesley* (1820), Vol. II., p. 544.

"We were, by a great majority, *clear* for the experiment." James Boswell (1791), *Life of Johnson* (ed. 1826), Vol. IV., p. 77.

"Are you *clear* that this haste will not mar, instead of make, an understanding?" William Godwin, *Caleb Williams* (1794), p. 36 (ed. 1849).

"Both think that a son ought to obey his father, and both are *clear* that a good man is better than a bad one." Rev. Sydney Smith (1804), *Elementary Sketches of Moral Philosophy* (1850), p. 20. Also at p. 25.

"I am not perfectly *clear* that the word 'little' ever occurs, in Scripture, in the sense of 'morally worthless.'" Rev. G. S. Faber (1805), *A Dissertation on the Prophecies*, &c. (1806), Vol. I., p. 125.

"Of all my friends, Coleridge is, perhaps, the only one who thinks with me upon this subject; but I am *clear*, in my own mind." Robert Southey (1807), in the Rev. C. E. Southey's *Life and Correspondence* of him (1850), Vol. III., p. 68.

"About the middle of July—but I am not *clear* of the date—the news was assured," &c. Madame D'Arblay (1815), *Diary and Letters*, Vol. VII., p. 181 (ed. 1846).

"I am *clear* that . . . is much the more elegant Latin expression of the two." Henry Hallam (1818), *Middle Ages*, Vol III., p. 567 (ed. 1829).

"I am not at all *clear* that they are not right." Lord Byron (1821), *Works* (ed. 1832, &c.). Vol. V., p. 115.

"On the whole, I am quite *clear* as to my original position." Dr. Thomas Arnold (1837), in Stanley's *Life and Correspondence* of him, p. 428 (ed. 1846).

"In the first place, I am not *clear* that the object is a good one. In the next place, I am not *clear* that," &c. Lord Macaulay (1841), *Biographies* (1860), p. x.

"You may be *clear*, in future, with whom it is fitting to hold communion." Cardinal Newman, *The Church of the Fathers* (1842), p. 106. Also in the same author's *Apologia*, &c. (1864), p. 124.

"I am not at all *clear* that I shall not have to claim," &c. Prof. Augustus De Morgan (1846), in Sir William Hamilton's *Letter*, &c. (1847), p. 16.

"And clearness of view as to regeneration, conversion, and justification will enable us to be *clear* as to all the remaining stages of the spiritual life." Bp. Samuel Wilberforce, *Addresses*, &c. (1860), p. 46.

Additional relevant quotations, which are at hand, but which it must be needless to copy out, are from Hartley Coleridge, Mr. Charles Dickens, Mr. A. H. Clough, Mr. Thomas Carlyle, Mr. James Spedding, Mr. Charles Reade, Lord Strangford, "George Eliot," Dr. W. G. Ward, Mr. John Ruskin, Miss Charlotte M. Yonge, Mr. Leslie Stephen, Mr. Richard Congreve, Mr. William Minto, and other well-known writers, to the number of from twenty to thirty.

Many of the foregoing quotations I have had by me half my lifetime. Among them, under the date of 1770, is that from Foote, which Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant brings forward, as if he thought it a striking novelty. See his *New English* (1886), Vol. II., p. 184.

As contributing to illustrate the matter under treatment, the subjoined passages are noteworthy:

"Now, for the integrity of Moses, for us Christians, wee are sufficiently *cleared* and satisfied by the authority of the Holy Spirit of God," &c. Dr. John Donne (before 1631), Translation of *Aristeas's Auncient History of the Septuagint* (ed. 1633), p. 214.

"Sure, I confesse I grow dim-sighted, and, in this point, so *darke*, that I cannot, with helpe of my spectacles, see your inference, except," &c. Dr. William Sclater (1621), *The Quæstion of Tythes Revised* (1623), p. 85.

"The great mass of the population are either stark unbelievers in it, or deplorably *dark* about it." Cardinal Newman, *Essays, Critical and Historical* (1871), Vol. II., p. 341.

As in Dryden and Lee's *Œdipus* (1679), so in Charles Coffey's *The Devil to Pay* (1731), Act I., Scene II., a blind man is called *dark*. In its subjective acceptation, *dark* has, further, the sense of "reticent." Meanings of two classes attach to *close*, also, and to a whole host of adjectives besides.

Transferred, as a qualification, from the object perceived to the percipient, *clear*, primarily "apprehending distinctly," has come to denote "certified," "convinced," "confident," "unwavering," "positive," "sure," "determined." It will be found that one or other of these definitions equates *clear*, in all the instances of its use which are cited above.

The fact being, that the omission here dwelt on has to be multiplied by hundreds, and even by thousands, in order to represent the deficiencies of old-school dictionaries, the call for such a work as that of Dr. Murray, the fruit of enormous coöperation, cannot but be obvious.

F. H.

Marlesford, England, February 4, 1888.

THE VETO POWER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The speech of Senator Stewart is very apropos to a discussion of the President's power. It is not a mere partisan speech—Republican against Democrat—but a stroke in the great battle of legislature against executive, with which probably more than half the Democratic members of both houses sympathize at heart, though party discipline compels them to suppress the feeling. If there is one thing, apart from his tariff message, which ought to, as I thoroughly believe it will, secure for the President the support of the country, it is his moral courage in the use of the veto power. Yet how unfair it is that such an attack should be made upon him without the power of reply. For the President can hardly take the ground, as he well might, that Congress is far more dangerous to the liberties of the people than he is. Will there be a single member of either house to raise his voice in defence, on other than party grounds, of the rights of the Presidential office? How many speakers in the autumn campaign will take the side of the President squarely against Congress? I know of one, at any rate, who proposes to exercise that privilege.

Observe the old cry, which has served the purpose of demagogues since the world began—"No man ever lived who could be safely intrusted with the liberties of the people, and no people had ever surrendered their liberties to one man without losing them eventually. If the people desired liberty, they would have to preserve it in their own keeping." What a pity there was not some one to ask the Senator what had become of the liberties of nations when intrusted wholly to a representative body; what was the history of the Long Parliament in Great Britain, of the French Convention of 1792, of the Chambers in 1848, or what is the outlook in France to-day? It would not have been amiss to glance at the history of the Continental Congress and the Confederation which succeeded it, and to balance the amount of good and evil to this country which resulted from intrusting power to one man by the name of Washington, or to have reviewed the course of Congress in the ten years preceding the civil war, and its management after that war broke out, and what were the results when the people of the United States, by tacit consent, gave a practical dictatorship to Abraham Lincoln. An appeal might then have been made to the candor of the Senator to state whether he thinks the present Congress shows itself particularly suited for the guidance of the destinies of a great nation.

The only way to achieve great things, whether military or civil, is through power intrusted to one man, the important question being to *what kind* of man it is intrusted; and safety lies not in checking and hampering his power, but in taking care that it is rightly exercised. The real trouble is not that the President has too much, but that he has too little, power as well as responsibility. There can be no question of the utter absurdity of Mr. Cleveland's position in standing, like Hercules with his club, and beating down, to right and left, the hydras that emanate from the so-called deliberations of Congress. But the very last remedy that should be adopted is to reduce the vote required for overriding his veto to a bare majority—in other words, to deprive him of it

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altogether—and so leave Congress to launch upon the country whatever vagaries or political jobs may be lobbied through that body. The only effective relief from the present false situation is to give to the President, through his Cabinet officers, a voice in the guidance of legislation, so that the views of the executive, as well as of the legislature, of the responsible national authority as well as of private interests, may be heard before it takes final shape, and so that, if it finally comes to a veto, the merits of the case and the contestants may be thoroughly understood by the country.

Meantime it is greatly to be feared that Senator Stewart's anxiety about the liberties of the people may be seriously increased by the results of the autumn election. G. B.

Boston, May 26, 1888.

Notes.

Mr. Lowell's address before the New York Reform Club will terminate a volume of political essays derived principally from the *Atlantic Monthly* and *North American Review* during the past thirty years. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be the publishers.

'The Poets of Maine,' compiled by Geo. B. Griffith, is almost ready for delivery by Elwell, Pickard & Co., Portland.

The Palestine Exploration Fund announce the publication of three important works: 'The Survey of Eastern Palestine,' by Captain Conder, R.E., with all the author's original drawings, maps, and plans, and with the results of Herr Schumacher's work in the same district; 'The Results of the Archæological Mission of M. Clermont-Ganneau,' with all the original drawings of M. Lecomte; and 'The Natural History of the Wâdy Arabah,' by H. Chichester Hart, with illustrations. The edition will be limited to 500 copies, and the subscription price will be three guineas for the first volume, and two guineas for each of the other two. The agent for these publications is Mr. A. P. Watt, 2 Paternoster Square, E. C., London.

Mr. E. Towry White, 31 Charing Cross, London, S. W., announces the publication of a list of the kings of Egypt, giving in hieroglyphic characters their names and titles, and the names of their wives and children so far as at present known, with an index giving the ordinary name, and also the literal reading of the hieroglyphics. To this will be added a list of the names of the Roman emperors and of the Ethiopian kings as they appear in cartouches. The work will consist of 175 plates, printed only on one side of the paper. The subscription price is one guinea.

Mr. Ferdinand Ongania, Venice, having completed the work of years in his 'Basilica of Saint Mark in Venice,' with a commentary, historical and artistic, by Venetian writers, offers new terms of subscription to this extraordinary illustration of one of the world's most precious monuments. Payment may be made in the course of three years in quarterly instalments, the first on delivery of the entire work. The total cost is a little more than £93.

To "Bohn's Select Library of Standard Works" (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford) has just been added 'Selected Plays of Molière'—"The Miser," "Tartuffe," and "The Shop-Keeper Turned Gentleman"—a little volume of two hundred pages.

A useful arrangement, by the way, of the plays of Molière has been made by M. Maurice Albert, son of the late Paul Albert, the well-known *professeur de faculté* and very clever writer on French literature. This 'Théâtre choisi de Molière' (Paris: Armand Colin; Boston: Schoenhof) contains in full the six plays demanded in the official programmes for higher public instruction: "L'Avare," "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," "Les Précieuses ridicules," "Les Femmes savantes," "Le Misanthrope," "Le Tartuffe." To these six plays M. Albert adds extracts from most of the other comedies, connecting them by abstracts of the omitted scenes. A very fair and sufficiently complete impression of the author is thus presented in a 12mo volume of 520 pages. The work is completed by an excellent biographical introduction, historical notices of each play, abundant explanatory foot-notes, and a valuable "literary explanation" of "Les Femmes savantes," given as an example of the kind of work that should be required in the school study of Molière, or any other dramatist. It may be seen from this summary how useful the volume would be to any one beginning the study of Molière.

M. E. M. de Vogüé's well-known work, 'Le Roman russe,' until now only to be had in the large octavo edition, has been published by Plon & Nourrit in the convenient 18mo form.

Two more volumes have also been issued of the same publishers' edition of the complete works of Dostoyevsky (Boston: Schoenhof)—'Les Pauvres Gens,' his earliest novel, which, when it appeared, at once established his reputation, and 'Les Frères Karamazov,' the work in course of publication at the time of his death. M. Victor Derély is the translator of the first of these, and the second, which has been in progress for several years, is done by MM. Halpérine-Kaminsky and Charles Morice, a literary partnership which seems to have produced the most satisfactory results, judging from a long episode which appeared in 1886 in the *Revue Contemporaine*.

Prof. Kluge's interesting tract, 'Von Luther bis Lessing,' which we have already described at some length, has reached a second edition, without material alteration, but with a colored language-map of Germany (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner).

In the annual report of the Provost of the University of Pennsylvania, we remark Prof. Dolley's account of a biological excursion to the Bahamas in June, 1887, with a view to establishing there a zoölogical station like that at Naples. The University wisely took a table at the Naples station, Prof. Dolley being its representative for a year, and will reap the fruit of its liberality if, as is to be hoped, he is able to set up at Nassau a marine laboratory in connection with his department at the University on the Schuylkill.

Turner's habit of embellishing and composing, rather than imitating, the natural landscapes to which he attached a definite name and locality, is well exemplified in the May *Portfolio* (Macmillan). Here, side by side, are shown an original drawing of the Reichenbach by J. R. Cozens, and a copy of it made by Turner, who has much improved upon it, artistically speaking. There are several interesting facsimiles of Turner's pencil drawings in the same article ("The Earlier English Water-Color Painters: Turner and Girtin"). Mention should also be made of at least two of the full-page illustrations, viz., the etching by G. M. Rhead after H. Sorgh's "Card-Players," and the mezzotint by F. Short after Cotman's "St. Mary Redcliffe."

The May Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with an interesting paper on the ruby mines near Mogok, Burma, by Mr. Robert Gordon, who has recently visited them to survey the region in which they are situated. This ruby-bearing region is an area of about ten miles long by five wide, and consists of groups of small valleys, lying some sixty miles north of Mandalay. The population is divided into two classes, the mining numbering about six thousand souls, and the agricultural about half as many. The people are of several distinct tribes, who, though they have lived for centuries side by side, never intermarry, and so preserve their peculiar tribal characteristics. Their houses are well built and comfortable, and there is a general appearance of wealth throughout the district. Three different methods of mining are employed: The first, and that of the least importance now but probably the most valuable in the future, is by working in fissure veins. The second is by washing, and on a very insignificant scale. No attempt has yet been made to wash the hillsides by water under pressure. The third and most important method is by digging pits. The rubies are rarely found in the crystal form. When flawless and beyond a certain weight they are worth ten times as much as diamonds of the same weight. In the discussion which followed the reading of the paper, Mr. Streeter stated that two Indian-cut rubies had recently been received in London, one of which, after recutting, weighed 38½ carats and was sold for £20,000, and the other, 32¼ carats, sold for £10,000.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May contains the second and concluding part of Mr. J. Y. Buchanan's paper on "The Exploration of the Gulf of Guinea." While his ship was anchored off Ascension in an unusually heavy sea, which prevented their landing for several days, a series of measurements of the waves were made, with the following results: The height of the highest roller was twenty feet from trough to crest; the medium length from crest to crest was 625 feet, the largest measuring 770 feet, and the waves travelled at the uniform rate of 23.4 nautical miles an hour.

The *Revue Scientifique* for May 12 contains a paper read before the Paris Geographical Society on the "Geographical Distribution of the Population in France," by M. Victor Turquan, Chief of the Statistical Bureau of the Ministry of Commerce. He fixes the mean density of the whole country at 72 inhabitants to the square kilometre, the mean density of the earth being 10. This puts France in the sixth place among the European nations, Belgium leading with 201, Netherlands 133, Great Britain 119, Italy 105, and Germany 86. He dwells upon the striking solitude of large tracts in Champagne, the hills of the Côte d'Or, the great central plateau, the Landes and Berri. The country for a great extent about Paris also is very sparsely populated. The present groupings of the people he regarded as being largely dependent upon the nature of the soil that nourished them, and therefore comparatively stable and permanent. The paper was illustrated by maps, one series of which was so colored as to represent the population of the different communes. A section of this map is reproduced in the *Revue*.

M. Victor Develay's slippered view of the late Désiré Nisard in *Le Livre* for May is brief and unsatisfactory, and the portrait of this professorial light of the Second Empire which it accompanies may be thought a better vindication of his public character by his private. One still recalls Béranger's inuendo—

"Pour moi Nisard sera-t-il l'éloquence?"

In another part of *Le Livre* we read that Nisard left memoirs for posthumous publication. M. Julien Lemer comes nearer the personality of his subject in "Quelques Autographes in-

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times de Charles Baudelaire," which ends with censure of the poet's family for suppressing certain unpublished works referred to in this correspondence, after his death. Opinions will differ on this point, accordingly as one esteems Baudelaire's productions as "pourriture" or otherwise. M. Lemer approves Hetzel's idea that after a certain period the state should abridge the property right of an author's heirs or successors, and, as in Mr. Pearsall Smith's plan, throw the works open to all publishers, on the sole condition of paying a fixed percentage on the selling price, which the state would return to the heirs. M. A. Quantin pays an affectionate and reverent tribute to a veteran publisher lately deceased, Henri Fournier, who began an apprentice of Didot and ended an associate of Mame at Tours, and had, between, an honorable career on his own account at Paris. His establishment in that city eventually fell to M. Quantin himself.

Any one who has read Tolstoi's 'Physiology of War: Napoleon and the Russian Campaign,' will be repaid by following M. Albert Sorel in his discourse before the École des Sciences Politiques on Tolstoi as an historian. A somewhat condensed report of it was given in the *Revue Bleue* for April 14. The critique is the work of an admirer unable to accept the theory of the uselessness of great men in determining the course of history. M. Sorel, without feeling, exposes Tolstoi's treatment of Napoleon and his generals in 'War and Peace,' and consoles himself for the anti-French bias by remarking that if Tolstoi is "très sévère aux Français—il l'est incontestablement—il l'est aussi, sans aucun doute, et plus encore aux Allemands; il professe pour eux, en toute occasion, un dédain colossal." The most suggestive part of the paper, however, is M. Sorel's showing how Tolstoi makes a Shaksperian use of Thiers's history, as in the episode of the Cossack who talks freely with the Emperor, not recognizing him; and the hardly fortuitous parallel between his views on war and those of Joseph de Maistre, notably in the latter's 'Soirées de Saint-Pétersbourg.'

We have received the seventh instalment of the Codici Palatini of the Florence Central National Library in the "Indici e Cataloghi" issued by the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction. Like the foregoing, it contains a highly interesting description of the several MSS., with an array of first lines in the case of the poems. Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, and many lesser luminaries stud the pages.

We print on another page the last of the late Michael Heilprin's critical contributions to the *Nation*—the review of Sayce. It was delayed in getting into type till his fatal illness overtook the writer.

—*Harper's* for June continues the papers upon the West which were promised as one of the features of the magazine for the current year. Of the extremely favorable view which Mr. Warner takes of the city of Chicago we have already spoken, but his discovery that it is a modest city in his first article hardly prepared us for the announcement in the second paper this month that it is an uncommonly moral city. The opposite view, which has not been hitherto opposed, is the prevalent one, and certainly one does not need to go far to find grounds for it. Mr. Warner ascribes it to the influence of the press of the city, which he thinks is not representative of the real facts; on the other hand, he gives no reasons for his own conclusion that Chicago is more wholesome morally than other cities of its size, and than many much smaller. A less doubtful distinction of the city is its attention to education, in which, like the entire West, it is eminent; but, notwithstanding Mr. Gunther's collections, to which Mr. Warner gives much space, Chicago libraries and museums must be regarded as things of the future. The other article in this field is upon Kansas, of which State a comprehensive account is given, so far as its soil, climate, and material progress are concerned. We observe in it a new word, which has certainly sprung from the soil, "urbiculture"; and as an American equivalent for what the Greeks called "colonization" it is not without a meaning, but it will probably be some time before it becomes established as a branch of human activity and is taught in the universities of the prairie. Mr. Bowker finishes his survey of "Literary London" with notices of the novelists and portraits; but it is the latter that make the article. A sketch of Capri, which does not lose its attraction as a subject, is not very good, nor are the views those which give the island its peculiarity; and the paper upon life with the Arabs is equally unsatisfactory. In the Easy Chair Mr. Curtis defends the American press with skill, and says a good deal which is worth remembering by those who look for a virtue in it which does not exist in the community, of whose interests and tastes it is the expression; disinterestedness is perhaps really greater in it than in any other business enterprise.

—*Scribner's* begins its series of railroad papers with a number of beautiful illustrations, by means of which a view of engineering is given to the eye that is an effective aid to the text. The characteristics of American railroading, in the department of construction, are very clearly pointed out, especially the substitution of other modes of surmounting the difficulties of the lay of the land for the method of tunnelling, which is so much more resorted to in Europe. It is an advantage, too, that the writer begins at the beginning, with the planning of a line, and dwells on the great importance of this to the cost and the success of a road. He defends the American system of building rapidly and cheaply, and then, as the business of the line develops, rebuilding with better material, and he remarks upon the good fortune of the West in having the railroad to go first and determine direct and inexpensive lines of communication on which the grouping of the population afterwards depends. There are other features of the article, showing the development of railroading in the change from iron to steel and such particulars, which contribute to make it an excellent introduction, though it must be said that in attributing the amelioration of all things in this century and *in futuro* to the railroad, the writer gives to one element in modern civilization a primacy which has been unrivalled since the days of Aaron's rod. An article upon life in the hospitals will be of interest to the many who are concerned indirectly in charities; Prof. Hall's "Story of a Sand-Pile" is for social philosophers; Mr. Birrell's notice of Cardinal Newman, with two excellent portraits, is welcome, but very inadequate; Mr. Stevenson's discovery that Fielding was a gentleman deserves to be chronicled; and of Mr. Aldrich's pastoral we have only to say that it is in the most finished form of the popular, piquant, society school of verse, and bears comparison with anything in its vein.

—Halliwell-Phillipps writes to an American friend: "This winter has been a season of sore disappointment to me. I was greatly in hopes to have made good progress in the arrangement of my still very large stock of unpublished materials illustrative of the life of Shakspere, but a succession of minor illnesses has sufficed to limit my work for months past to the composition of a few controversial letters. All this is rendered the more disappointing by my publishers' notice, just come to hand, that they have sold out all of the last edition [the seventh] of my 'Outlines.'" No one who has read a page of the Life of Shakspere, which Mr. Phillipps still modestly terms 'Outlines,' though the last edition has swelled to 848 pages, will wonder that a new edition is called for every year. It is hard to believe that any one can read through that work and still remain unconverted from the Baconian heresy. Whoever recalls how Mr. Phillipps, when first putting his hand to the 'Outlines,' deplored that "the time he had occupied in gathering together the necessary artistic and literary material had practically excluded him from making an effective use of his accumulations," will not easily believe that he will not still bring forth fruit up to the old age of Gladstone.

—The activity of our State legislatures is strikingly shown in Mr. Raymond L. Bridgman's little book, 'Ten Years of Massachusetts' (Boston: D. C. Heath). Under a dozen general heads—Public Administration, Labor Legislation, Education, and the like—he has grouped the substance of the most important statutes passed by the General Court since 1878; and in a number of cases he has added instructive comment on the growth of legislation, and on the influences which have brought about particular acts. In nearly every field of legislation there has been an honest attempt to correct abuses and to advance civilization; many of the acts are models which other States would do well to copy. The significance of the book is, however, its unconscious testimony to a change which seems to be coming over the popular conception of government. Year by year the Legislature has entered upon new fields. The record shows a large number of acts on forests, foods, the water supply, and public health. Additional protection is provided for passengers on railroads and employees of railroads and factories. Children are protected from cruelty, from acting in theatres, from roller-rinks, and from toy-pistols; and they are instructed in temperance hygiene. The Commonwealth has gone to the point of putting mufflers on "pop-up" safety valves. Moreover, the State more and more assumes the administration of local laws, either by creating commissions or by limiting the police, taxes, and debts of municipalities. Another striking feature is the number of new laws which are notoriously not executed. Such are the provisions for a secret ballot; against betting and gaming, the selling of "police" illustrated papers, the selling of cigarettes to boys; and the saloon-screen law. The influence of "labor" is plainly seen in acts on convict labor, the regulation of factories, and weekly payments, and in the proposal, which was almost carried, that the State should build small houses to be paid for in instalments.

—Library catalogues are seldom of interest, unless to specialists. One noteworthy exception is the earliest 'Catalogue of the Library of the United States,' published in 1815, pp. 170, xxxii. This work was the production of Jefferson, and the only one of the kind that can boast a President or ex-President as its author. The Congressional Library had been burned by the British on August 24, 1814. Within a month Jefferson wrote, offering to sell his library to Congress on its own terms, and forwarding a catalogue which, in its plan, dated from his first study of Bacon, but which in details had grown with the growth of his collection. His proposal was

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at once accepted by the Senate, and unanimously, as it was felt that the Jeffersonian gathering contained more books specially needed in Congress than were elsewhere within reach, and also that, having been accumulated with much pains, day by day, during Jefferson's Parisian residence, it would form a good nucleus for future accretions in all departments. In the House, however, the bill for making the purchase encountered steady opposition. At the outset a motion to postpone indefinitely was only defeated by a vote of seventy-three to sixty-nine. It was then proposed to purchase only such a part of the Jefferson books as were suitable for Congressional purposes. When it was ascertained that the books must all be bought or none of them could be had, there was talk of "selecting such books as might be useful to members and selling the rest at auction." But the most memorable motion was made by Mr. King of Massachusetts, who moved "to instruct the Library Committee, as soon as the Jefferson volumes should have been received in Washington, to select therefrom all books of an atheistical, irreligious, or immoral tendency, if any such there be, and send the same back to Mr. Jefferson without any expense to him." "The debate," says the chronicle, "became rather too animated, and was checked by the Speaker." The purchase was at last voted by a majority of ten.

—The threefold division of the Catalogue was no doubt suggested by these words of Bacon: "The parts of human learning have reference to the three parts of man's understanding, which is the seat of learning: History to his memory, poesy to his imagination, and philosophy to his reason." Under these three heads the books are classed in forty-four chapters. The volumes were reckoned by their owner about ten thousand, and the price paid was less than $25,000. It is unlikely that any American library of its size was more valuable, or better selected. It is a shrewd saying: "If you would find out what a man's character is, get a sight of his personal account-book." Jefferson's book catalogue is suggestive of secrets regarding his life, and so it ought to be bound up with his works, and if possible in facsimile. In a book published at Boston in 1712 John Wise, a Puritan parson, wrote the following words: "The end of all good government is to promote the happiness of all, and the good of every man in all his rights, his life, liberty, estate, honor," etc. This and others of his utterances gave Wise fame as the first American Democrat. Two editions of his work were republished at Boston in 1772, for no pre-Revolutionary writer was such a master of style. The similarities in Wise to phrases in Jefferson's Democratic Declaration have wakened curiosity as to whether Jefferson had read the work of Wise. Much fruitless search has been made. The catalogue has an entry which may serve to thicken other proofs, in an index of the surnames of authors which Jefferson himself made, as he expressly states. Among them is the name Wise. The reference there made to chapter xv is erroneous. But the occurrence of the name tends to show that he had the book, and the more as the work of Wise was a pamphlet of not more than a hundred pages. In the chapter on Politics are many volumes of Political Tracts without authors' names. No. 183 is an octave of Tracts from 1769–73, which includes the year when John Wise was republished. It is worth search to discover whether John Wise is not now sleeping in the Congressional Library after inspiring Jefferson.

—The rise of the earliest Christian art has left its tide-mark still traceable in Irish art, while subsequent advances have mostly obliterated it from the continent of Europe. The interest of the art itself is narrow, though real. Its excellence is in its manuscripts, and in its less known metal work, forms of art which were quietly cultivated in Ireland when the rest of Europe was given over to invasion and decadence. St. Patrick was converting the Irish and laying the foundation of their monastic church while Genseric's pillage of Rome went on. When the period of invasion was over, and the arts began to revive on the Continent, Ireland followed, *haud pari passu*, but in the same track, till her season of invasion set in, and permanently stopped her advance. We see in her, therefore, a curious example of arrested growth, whose interest is greatly in the light which it throws on its continuation elsewhere. We find on the Continent the complete development, while the early stages have disappeared. In Ireland the early stages are left, and the development has never followed. Every study that tends to connect Irish antiquities with the main history of Art in Europe is welcome, and this is the virtue of Miss Margaret Stokes's work, for which her knowledge of Christian antiquities and her association in the special studies of the late Lord Dunraven have given her special qualifications. Her little volume, which is freely illustrated, is not only valuable, but readable. It bears title—'Early Christian Art in Ireland' (London: Chapman & Hall; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.).

LEA'S HISTORY OF THE INQUISITION.—I.

A History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages. By Henry Charles Lea. 3 vols. Harper & Bros. 1888.

Mr. Lea needs no commendation to the students of mediæval history as the most learned living guide to their studies in certain phases of mediæval life and thought. He has chosen for his themes the more obscure forces which were acting on the minds of men in the middle period, and which were training them for those more striking exhibitions of activity in politics and war which make up the narrative of the ordinary historian. He has little concern with the growth of kingdoms, with struggles for personal or family aggrandizement, least of all with the mere biographies of kings and prelates. His former works on 'Superstition and Force,' and on the 'History of Sacerdotal Celibacy,' showed the tendency of thought which is here carried out to a still greater extent. These earlier volumes contained studies in the great legal and social institutions on which mediæval life was based. They led the student into that strange middle world where men moved like the half-demented victims of terrible delusions. It was Mr. Lea's special interest to show that the singular manifestations of this mental condition were not, in fact, outbursts of fanatic madness, but were deeply rooted in the legal and social ideas of the time. Law, as the embodiment of racial instincts, has been the starting-point and the sure basis of his studies.

In beginning the history of the Inquisition he has been guided by the same principle. He expressly declares his conviction that "the surest basis for the investigation of a given period lay in an examination of its jurisprudence." We are thus able to feel that he has solid ground beneath his feet, and, no matter how incredible the instances of human weakness and credulity which he presents, we must believe that he has not borrowed one particle from his own prejudice, nor drawn ever so slightly upon his historical imagination.

The whole period of the Inquisition Mr. Lea divides at the Reformation into two distinct parts, of which only the former is treated in these three considerable volumes. It will thus be seen that some of the most terrible and dramatic portions of the history, especially those relating to the Spanish Inquisition and its dealings with the Low Countries, still remain to be considered. It must be the wish of every scholar that the author may be spared to complete the work according to his present plan.

As in his previous work, so here, Mr. Lea takes his subject in its widest meaning. By the history of the Inquisition he means not merely an account of the institution itself, but an exhaustive examination of the social, intellectual, and political conditions which produced it. He means, further, an array of illustrations of its working and of its effects upon society, such as make any serious doubts as to the general accuracy of his presentation impossible. The survey of the conditions which made the Inquisition possible, we might almost say inevitable, occupies one-half of the first volume. It is a masterly summary of the process by which the Church rose to be the absolute dominating power over the minds of men. That process is shown in the gradual development of the idea of heresy, and its extension to include every form of departure from the usages of the Church. The awful episode of the Albigensian Crusade is treated as the natural outcome of the duty of the organized Church to insist upon uniformity of belief and practice as essential to true Christianity. It would be too much to say that Mr. Lea has made perfectly clear precisely what the heresy of the Albigensians was, whence it came, what was its relation to the other forms of mediæval divergence from orthodoxy, and the basis of its hold upon the population of southern France. These are still, and are likely to remain, obscure problems.

The description of the Catharan heresy, drawn from many sources, makes it very clear why the policy of persecution became a necessity. The very existence of Catholicism was endangered by a theory of the true Church which made it consist of a select body of saints, instead of being the natural home and refuge of all mankind. This doctrine was spreading very rapidly, and the dominant Church was forced to defend itself or perish. Singularly enough, the rescue of the Church came from an impulse strangely like that which was threatening its very life. There was no more potent cause of heresy than a sense of the insufficiency of the Church organization for its proper work in the world; this same sense of insufficiency produced the mendicant orders, who were to be the chief weapon of the Church against heresy. The fanatic devotion of Dominic and Francis, if it had been rejected by the Papacy, as at one time it seemed likely to be, might very easily have been turned into a critical and furious opposition. As it was, the means for the destruction of heresy were put into the hand of the Papacy almost against its will, and from that time onward persecution developed itself with resistless force.

In describing the Holy Office, Mr. Lea departs from the tradition which would represent it as a new creation, and shows that it was a development out of perfectly well-recognized principles of legal process. The "inquisitio" was a form of procedure well known to the Roman law; its peculiarity consisted in its use as a means of hunting down the offender, and it was the gradual application of this process to the trial for heresy which produced

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that frightfully effective machinery known as "The Inquisition." Mr. Lea's account of the Inquisition proper, its organization, its legal process, and its relation to other authorities, forms the most important and at the same time probably the least popular part of his work. It occupies but one-half of one volume, a space altogether disproportionate, one must think, to its real value. The accumulation of horrors which fills the later volumes is tame reading compared to this calm, lawyer-like presentation of the devilish ingenuity with which the forms of law were applied to meet the ever-new forms in which the persistent heresy of the Middle Ages presented itself. At first the power of inquisition rested in the regular ecclesiastical courts, and the inquisitors were only the regularly employed agents of the courts. But here appeared the danger which the Papacy was always forced to combat. Local courts were all too sensitive to local influences. The ecclesiastical judge, a man among men, would have too many human weaknesses to make him the blind servant of the Papal will. The inquisitor must be set free from all personal allegiances, except to the one dictating force at the centre. We are shown here how this emancipation of the inquisitor went on, step by step, in the face of every protest, until he finally stood as a man practically without limits to his action. Even a pope, if he were, perchance, too humane or too timid to suit the demand of the Holy Office, might well tremble before it. The Papacy had raised a spirit which it could not itself control.

Throughout this examination of the inquisitorial process Mr. Lea is calm and dispassionate. He resists with exceptional courage the temptation which any lover of the light must feel, to treat his subject with indignant contempt. He is enabled to do this by his thorough understanding of the spirit of mediæval Catholicism. He sees clearly, as a superficial student cannot see, the enormous stake for which the Church was playing, and he sees also what there was of good for humanity bound up with its very life. The forms of heresy combated by the early Inquisition were undoubtedly full of dangers to the moral and religious condition of Europe. Their holders were not uniformly men of light. They too were victims of the darkness of the time; and on the whole, if one had to choose, one would rather trust the dangers of ecclesiasticism, with its great germ of living truth, than these wild offshoots of Oriental fanaticism, even though they did point out with unerring finger the plague-spots on the surface of the body of the Church.

It may be safely said that no presentation of the story of the Inquisition by previous writers can be at all compared with this for its clearness of vision, its comprehension of the problem, and its thoroughness of research. We reserve for a second notice the detail of the working of the institution presented in the second and third volumes.

SAYCE'S HIBBERT LECTURES.

Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion, as illustrated by the Religion of the Ancient Babylonians. By A. H. Sayce. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Scribner & Welford. [The Hibbert Lectures, 1887.]

THE Preface to this work—one of its author's most extensive and most elaborate productions—opens with "a word of apology . . . for the numerous repetitions in the following chapters, which are due to the fact that the chapters were written and delivered in the form of lectures." The explanation is inadequate, for there are also repetitions in single divisions. In the first chapter, for instance, we read in a note to page 72:

"The name of Sin, the Moon-god, is met with in an Himyaritic inscription, and a god who thus found his way to southern Arabia would be equally likely to find his way to northern Arabia";

and again (p. 50):

"Sin was the Babylonian name of the Moon-god. We learn from a Himyaritic inscription that his name had been carried into southern Arabia, and there is therefore no reason why it should not have been imported into northern Arabia as well."

On page 45:

"Josephos has preserved an extract from the Egyptian historian, Manetho. . . . In this it is stated that the earlier name of Moses was Osarsiph, and that he had been priest of Heliopolis, or On. Here it is evident that Moses and Joseph have been confounded together. The name of Joseph, who married the daughter of the priest of On, has been decomposed into two elements, the first of which is the divine name Jeho, and this has been changed into its supposed Egyptian equivalent, Osar, or Osiris."

And in a note to page 51:

"Manetho (ap. Joseph. . . .) states that the original name of Moses was Osarsiph, and that he had been a priest of Heliopolis, or On. Osar-siph is simply Joseph, Osar or Osiris being substituted for Jeho (Jo) or Jehovah. Joseph, it will be remembered, married the daughter of the priest of On."

Besides, another word of apology ought to have been inserted for the extensive repetitions in these 'Lectures' and the appendices to them of expositions made by the author in various previous publications.

We are far from inclined to make it appear that Prof. Sayce is apt to repeat himself from lack of fresh matter for new lectures or dissertations. His learning and fame shield him against such an imputation. No other archæologist is more often before the public with discoveries, or observations on discoveries, in his fields of study. And what he has to say always betokens ample familiarity with the latest research, and often ingenuity. What we object to in him, as in some of his fellow-laborers in Assyriology, is an excessive propagandist zeal in the interest of that science, from which springs an irresistible habit of inculcation. In the 'Lectures' before us, everything picked out of the monumental rubbish of Babylonia and Assyria which can throw the least flicker of light, however evanescent and calculated to deceive, upon the gods and goddesses of Babylon, Borsippa, Nipur, Larsam, Eridu, etc., is pressed upon the reader with as much persuasive effort as if the salvation of Christian souls depended on a true recognition of Ea, Mullil, and Ninip, Zarpanit, Davkina, and Ninkigal, and their like. And a very large part of what is thus offered as knowledge of a high order—though not without reservations as to entire accuracy, made in view of daily fresh light—rests, in reality, on a frail network of conjecture. The conjectures are surely of interest to the scholar, and worth the trouble of examination—as are the problems of Etruscan or Basque etymology—but they should be dealt with as topics for the learned, without missionary ardor. The subject, on the whole, is not worthy of enthusiasm; for Chaldean mythology, as revealed to us by the pedant scribblers on clay tablets, is as completely devoid of poetic charm and primitive naïveté as the Assyro-Babylonian history of the monuments is devoid of all traits of nobility or naturalness.

A study of "the religion of the ancient Babylonians" is, it is true, not without interest in regard to Biblical inquiry. It imparts to us, for instance, information about Nebo, Merodach, Bel, Babylonian divinities mentioned in the Old Testament—the first in Isaiah, the second in Jeremiah, and the third in both. But how much does that new information amount to? Before cuneiform decipherments had been made, we believed with Gesenius that the gods mentioned were divine embodiments of the planets Mercury, Mars, and Jupiter, respectively. Now we have learned that "Nebo must have once been an elemental god," that "Babylonian astronomy made him the presiding deity of the planet Mercury, just as it made Merodach the presiding deity of Jupiter," and that "the Merodach of the historical age" was "the great Bel or Baal of Babylon," though different from "the older Bel of Nipur." According to this, Gesenius was right when he identified Nebo with Mercury, and Bel with Jupiter, and mistaken in regard to Merodach, in not identifying him with the great Bel of Babylon, but deriving his name, which, in Jeremiah (l, 2), is coupled with Bel's, as Nebo's is in Isaiah (xlvi, 1), "a stirpe *Mord*, *Mort*, quæ et *mortem* et *cædem* significat," just as "*Mars*, *Mavors*, et *mors* ejusdem originis esse videntur" ('Thesaurus,' *s. v.*). And the gain is a different meaning, without a new rendering, for a line in Jeremiah. Whether King Merodach-Baladan or King Evil-Merodach bore the name of Jupiter or Mars, is, of course, wholly indifferent.

Incomparably more important to Biblical students would be the remarks concerning the names of Joseph, Moses, Saul, David, and Solomon, if they were sufficiently substantiated. Collectively they would greatly impair the value of the Scriptural narratives of all early Hebrew history, even if considered merely as reflections of popular tradition. The story of Joseph would cease to be a recollection of Egyptian life, and become something like a Babylonian myth—because it appears "probable that the name of Joseph was originally identical with the Babylonian *asipu*," which may be the designation of "the god of the oracle," especially as among the names of the cities captured by Thothmes III., in Palestine, there is one which is read *Iseph-el*, and may be translated "Joseph, the God." The name Moses would be a reminiscence of the Babylonian *māsu*, "the hero" or "leader," "an epithet applied to more than one divinity," but "in a peculiar sense associated with the sun-god"—the character which represented the idea of hero also representing "the idea of a 'collection of books,' . . . 'a scribe' or 'librarian,'" terms so appropriate to the lawgiver "to whom Hebrew tradition referred the collection of its earliest documents, and the compilation of its legal code." Besides, Moses was said to have died on Mount Nebo, which bore the name of "the prophet-god of Babylon, . . . the patron of writing and literature," as a star "accounted one of the seven 'heroes' or *māsu*"; and in the story of him we also meet with the name Sin, which was that of another Babylonian god, and "Sinai itself," which Moses reached after traversing the wilderness of Sin, "can scarcely signify anything else than the mountain sacred to the Moon-god." Saul and Solomon also bear the names of Assyro-Babylonian gods, popularly bestowed on them instead of their original names. For the former, "the one asked for" (Heb. Shāūl), the people wisely discovered the "singularly appropriate" mythological name Savul, or Sawul, by which the sun-god was known at Babylon, whence if "Rehoboth of the river" designates that city, the Edomites also receiv-

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ed a King Saul (Gen. xxxvi). The successor of David they named after Sallimanu, "the god of peace," probably a fish-god, "honored particularly in Assyria," in a list of whose gods "mention is made of 'Sallimanu the fish, the god of the city of Temen-Sallim (the foundation of peace)'"—so strikingly reminding one of Solomon of Jerusalem.

The argument as to the name of the son of Jesse is fuller. Condensed, it runs thus: "That David's first name was Elhanan (or Baal-hanan) has long been suspected, since it is stated in one passage that Elhanan, the son of a Bethlehemite, 'slew Goliah the Gittite, the staff of whose spear was like a weaver's beam,' while the feat is elsewhere ascribed to David; and at the head of the thirty mighty men of David is placed Elhanan, the son of Dodo of Bethlehem, where we should probably read 'Elhanan, who is Dodo,' or David." This name is identical with that of the Syrian supreme Baal, or Sun-god, Hadad. In an abbreviated form, Shalmaneser speaks of the god Dáda of Khalman, or Aleppo. Be-dad, or Ben-dad, "the son of Dad," was the father of the Edomite, Hadad. David, "or Dod, as the word ought to be read," or Dodo—"the beloved one"—is the male corresponding to the Phœnician goddess and presiding deity of Carthage, called Dido by the writers of Rome. And a recent thorough examination of the squeeze of the Moabite stone by Profs. Socin and Smend, which resulted in some new readings, shows that King Mesha "tells us that he had carried away from Ataroth 'the *arel* (or altar) of Dodo and dragged it before Chemoth,' and from Nebo 'the *arels* (or altars) of Yahveh,' which he likewise 'dragged before Chemoth.'" From this parallelism "it is quite clear" "that the Israelites of the northern kingdom worshipped a Dodo or Dod by the side of Yahveh, or, rather, that they adored the supreme God under the name of Dodo as well as under that of Yahveh." It is even "suggested that Dod, or Dodo, was an old title of the supreme God in the Jebusite Jerusalem, and that hence Isaiah, when describing Jerusalem as the tower of the vineyard the Lord had planted in Israel, calls him Dôd-î, 'my beloved.'"

To us "it is quite clear" that all these identifications, however specious some of them may appear, are extravagantly forced. Let us examine them briefly. Prof. Sayce himself evidently knows only an epithet *asipu*, but no such name of a god, for a mention of which we have in vain searched the books (on our shelves) of Schrader, Delitzsch, Hommel, George Smith, Lenormant, the Oxford professor himself, and other Assyriologists. The city name read by our author Iseph-el, and translated "Joseph, the God," is read by Brugsch, the best authority on the subject, Ishpar, and identified with Micah's Shaphir. Nor have we been able to discover a trace of a god Māsu, into which the epithet *māsu* is twisted, or of Savul, or Sawul. Now we should have to believe that the Hebrews of those olden times were wonderfully learned in the mythological lore of Babylon and Nineveh, with which, as the Bible and the monuments concurrently show, they had not the least connection in those periods, if we were to assume that such recondite and obscure designations could have any popular meaning for them, as substitute names for their heroes. If surnames like "the one asked for," "the beloved one," or "the peaceable" were assumed, or bestowed on kings—as the Egyptian Ptolemies were called Soter, Philadelphus, Euergetes, etc.—the purely Hebrew appellations Shāûl, Dāvīd (or, say Dōd), Sh'lōmōh, were excellently chosen, and there was surely no need for the names of foreign idols. Nor were the Israelites in the habit of bestowing on a man the simple name of a divinity. They would couple with that name—Jah (or Jehovah), El, Baal—a verb or a common noun, thus: Jedediah, Jehovah's favorite; Elkanah, God-made; Jerubbaal, Baal-fighter. The list of the thirty mighty men of David which is cited to prove the identity of that King's name with Hadad and Dada, contains nine such compound names—Asael, Elhanan, Elika, Eliahba, Jonathan, Eliphalet, Eliam, Uriah (besides the incidentally mentioned Joab and Zeruiah)—and no name of a foreign god. "That David's first name was Elhanan has long been suspected," is true, but the conjecture has just as long been considered easily refutable by the texts (II. Sam. xxi and xxiii) on which it was grounded. Thenius ('Die Bücher Samuels') showed its hollowness; Wellhausen ('Der Text der Bücher Samuelis') completely ignored it. And the supposition that "the Israelites of the northern kingdom worshipped a Dodo or Dod"—not the least allusion to which can be found in the Bible—is extremely far from being made "quite clear" by Socin and Smend's examination of the squeeze of Mesha's inscription. These professors themselves, in their joint monograph on the subject ('Die Inschrift des Königs Mesa von Moab für akademische Vorlesungen,' 1886) say: "Allerdings könnte man in Dodo . . . vielleicht ebenso gut den Namen des Stifters wie den einer Gottheit (Liebesgottheit?) suchen." That is to say, Mesha's "Dodo"—if correctly read—may designate a man, and, if a divinity, a goddess of love—the Dido of the Phœnicians. (What an appropriate name for King David!) Besides, the *arel* in question was "deutlich Moabitischen Ursprungs," carried as "spolia opima" to the border-town Ataroth, and back to Moab by Mesha. On so frail a basis is reared the hypothesis that the Israelites "adored the supreme God under the name of Dodo, as well as under that of Yahveh," and that even Isaiah spoke of the Lord as Dod!

After all this evidence of the learned author's fondness for bold conjectures, it is hardly necessary to state that his faith in the extravagant speculations of "the brilliant and gifted François Lenormant," of "Dr. Fritz Hommel, one of the ablest of the younger band of Assyrian students," and others, as to the relations of Accado-Sumerian to Semitic Babylonian and of Accadian and Sumerian to each other, has not been shaken in the least by the more than half accomplished desertion of Friedrich Delitzsch to the side of Halévy, who knows only Semitic-Babylonian inscriptions. We will conclude our notice of the 'Lectures' with an extract showing the author's offensive-defensive attitude in this question:

"Far be it from me to disparage . . . the work which has been accomplished by Professor Delitzsch and his pupils. We owe it in great measure to him that the decipherment of Assyrian stands at its present level of scholarship. . . . But the Leipzig school has, with one or two striking exceptions, been far too one-sided. Archæology, history, religion, mythology, have been neglected in favor of the almost exclusive study of words: words, too, not as bound together in the sentences of untranslated texts, but isolated and apart. . . . This excessive devotion to vocabularies has been too often accompanied by a misconception or forgetfulness of the real nature of the 'bilingual lists.' They are for the most part commentaries upon older texts, made we know not when, and intended to explain the meaning of rare or obsolete words, ideographs, and expressions. The original text was sometimes in Accado-Sumerian, sometimes in an older form of Semitic Babylonian, while at other times texts in both languages were commented on together by the scribe. In the so-called non-Semitic column of the 'bilingual lists,' accordingly, we must expect to find not only Accado-Sumerian, but also Semitic words as well as ideographs, which may be either of Sumerian or of Semitic origin. . . . The mythological lists, which contain a medley of divine names and epithets drawn from sources of all kinds and ages, partly Accado-Sumerian, partly Assyrian, partly purely ideographic, partly even Elamite or Kossæan, afford a good example of the difficulty and danger of trusting implicitly to such guides. It is from this cause that Assyrian has been taken for Accadian, Accadian for Assyrian; while ideographs have been read phonetically, and phonetic characters as if they were ideographs."

NEW ASTRONOMIES.

Unfinished Worlds: A Study in Astronomy. By S. H. Parkes, F.R.A.S., F.L.S. James Pott & Co.

Half Hours with the Stars: A Plain and Easy Guide to the Knowledge of the Constellations. . . . Maps and Text specially prepared for American Students. By Richard A. Proctor, F.R.A.S. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The New Astronomy: By Samuel Pierpont Langley, Ph.D., LL.D. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Outlines of Physiography: The Movements of the Earth. By J. Norman Lockyer, F.R.S. Macmillan & Co.

The Asteroids, or Minor Planets between Mars and Jupiter. By Daniel Kirkwood, LL.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Astronomy for Amateurs: A Practical Manual of Telescopic Research in all Latitudes. Edited by John A. Westwood Oliver. Longmans, Green & Co.

Old and New Astronomy. By Richard A. Proctor. Longmans, Green & Co. [Part I.]

SUCH a book as 'Unfinished Worlds' is deserving of very little notice. The author writes like a mere dabbler, making frequent exhibitions of his ignorance, and bad use of English besides. The disappearances of Saturn's ring are phenomena he has not mastered; Struve's hypothesis of the closing in of this ring is accepted as fact; and Darwin's famous researches into the tidal evolution of satellite systems are all in vain for him, for the satellites of Mars are an unaccountable enigma, unless allowed to be asteroids in captivity! The "size" of a star and its "magnitude" are one and the same thing to Mr. Parkes, and the plumb-line is an instrument for measuring distances.

Amateurs and tyros in star-lore have to thank Mr. Proctor for another means to their end in his 'Half Hours with the Stars.' It is very easy, as he says, to gain a knowledge of the stars—that is, star names and sky places—if the learner sets to work in the proper manner. Of course, the attempt to use a set of the ordinary star maps, which give no direct indication of the position of the stars and constellations in the sky, is a very improper manner—first, because it is at times even a little difficult for the astronomer to pick up particular asterisms from such maps, and the beginner could not be expected to do better; and, second, because of the perpetual recurrence of the same difficulty in the perennial change of relation of constellation lines to the horizon plane. Mr. Proctor has sought to overcome all troubles by showing in twelve circular maps all the visible stars of our latitudes. Each has the zenith for its centre, and the horizon for its periphery, and shows, thus, at some hour each night, the position and direction—the names, too—of all the stars readily visible to the average eye. More may be gained than is lost by crowding these maps with many a line and symbol; but it makes much difficulty in imagining how the sky looks from the confused fulness of the map. Non-stellar

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matter might at least have been less prominent. Appropriate letterpress description faces each map. The book is well got up, and cannot fail to afford valuable help to the child in uranography.

In 'The New Astronomy,' by Professor Langley, we find omission of little or nothing of the physical processes of to-day: photometry, dry-plate photography with its marvels, spectroscopy—all are there. Nor does he end with the bare results of the new research; all is thought out philosophically, and the ultimate bearings indicated. The author shows his culture, without obtruding it, and his book is charming reading, in spite of minor faults in style and polish. The question of the industrial relations of the sun to man is felicitously dealt with, and Professor Langley shows himself a firm believer in the future of sun-power. The sun-machines and solar engines so far built are sometimes thought of as mere playthings. "If toys," he says, "they are the toys of the childhood of a science which is destined to grow, and in its maturity to apply this solar energy to the use of all mankind." Again, p. 116:

"Whoever finds the way to make industrially useful the vast sun-power now wasted on the deserts of north Africa or the shores of the Red Sea, will effect a greater change in men's affairs than any conqueror in history has done; for he will once more people those waste places with the life that swarmed there in the best days of Carthage and of old Egypt, but under another civilization, where man shall no longer worship the sun as a god, but shall have learned to make it his servant."

The publishers have given Professor Langley's work the handsome setting it deserves—with an abundance of illustrations, fine paper, and a rich binding. For the most part, the aptly chosen and well-executed illustrations are not less new than the astronomy to which they relate. We find some fault with the printer's scattering of them among the subject-matter—drawings and text hitch along together, at times with marked inconvenience to the reader, who has frequently to turn many leaves before finding the cut under description. The engraver's work is generally beyond criticism, but the drawing of the milky way (p. 225) is very faulty, while Common's superb photograph of the Orion nebula is utterly ruined by the coarse cutting of the gravers. The typographical accuracy is noteworthy—we have observed a single error, p. 233, where the initials of the well-known discoverer of double stars should be transposed. The reader familiar with the original researches of other workers in like fields with Professor Langley will not fail to observe the pleasing fulness of his notice of what they have done. Now and then his own painstaking investigations are only touched upon—or entirely passed over—with a grace of modesty which comes near depriving the reader of what he has a right to expect. A copiously full index, with cross-references, is a great help in recalling special passages. Professor Langley has made a thoroughly fascinating book—fascinating in the matter to which it relates, and no less fascinating in the way the story is told. We may justly expect it to arouse an interest in the "new astronomy" no less than the personality of Mitchell nearly half a century ago aroused in the old.

In the 'Outlines of Physiography,' Mr. Lockyer will essay a survey of Nature with strict relation to the Earth's place therein, especially, though not exclusively, from the standpoint of modern physical astronomy. Such a theme calls for breadth of view and philosophic treatment. With the steady progress of physical science, the Earth has dwindled in significance as man has grown older: it began as the centre of the universe; it is now reduced to a small mass of matter revolving round a small star. But proportionally as the Earth's place in nature has thus been subject to continual degradation, so has man's mental horizon been extended. For the purpose in view, exhaustive treatment of "the movements of the Earth" is not required. Prefacing his work proper with useful chapters on the measurement of angular space and the measurement of time, the Earth's axial rotation is first discussed, and then its orbital revolution: while, finally, the results of both rotation and revolution are considered. There is no lack of general balance, and the whole work is written in Mr. Lockyer's clear and easy style. He excels in the apt choice of subjects for illustration, of which there is an abundance.

In his little treatise on 'The Asteroids,' Dr. Kirkwood, the American "authority" on small planets, if we may so say, makes on behalf of this unique system of bodies a fair claim for more particular attention than it has hitherto received. Their number is undergoing rapid increase. The rival discoverers are still at work—Peters of Clinton, who has found nearly fifty new planets, and Palisa of Vienna, whose string now counts three score and over. If present indications are to be trusted, the total number of small planets known in 1890 will reach 300. Much tabular and statistical matter regarding the group is clearly presented in part i of this book, while part ii deals with the very interesting questions of the origin of the ring, and the relations of its various zones to the comets of short period. If ultimately established, this latter connection will more than compensate astronomers for the deal of drudgery, observational and calculative, imposed by the growing multitude of known bodies between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter.

A late President of the Royal Astronomical Society, in presenting the gold medal of the Society to an amateur astronomer a few years since, directed attention to the fact that the amateur who can provide himself with sufficient instrumental means for original research need fear no professional rivalry; it is, indeed, from this class of workers that the most striking advantages in astronomy are to be expected. It was a good idea to bring together in a single manual such information as the amateur is most in need of—to show him what work is worth doing, to guard him against wasting time on work not worth doing—in fact, to indicate clearly the most effective methods of using such instrumental means as he may possess. One has only to read such "reports of observatories" in America as were issued by the Smithsonian Institution seven or eight years ago, to become astonished at the vast amount of well-made astronomical apparatus scattered throughout the country, and at the utterly aimless manner in which a good deal of it is used. The many-authored little volume before us, 'Astronomy for Amateurs,' is intended to relieve this false relation. Among the writers who contribute special chapters are Sir Howard Grubb, Burnham, Maunder, and Denning, well-recognized specialists.

With a dozen authors it is not remarkable that some important points should have been passed with insufficient treatment, while others are omitted entirely. Had each writer set out to make plain the precise relation of the known to the unknown, or of the known to that which is worth trying to find out, the result would have been better adapted to the end in view. As it is, the work as a whole is too little different from previous manuals for the telescopist. Perhaps the amateur is not supposed to know more than he usually does, but he is surely presumed to have more of the astronomic sense than he usually has. We cannot enter upon detailed criticism of the individual chapters, but we notice at the outset, in Sir Howard Grubb's treatment of the telescope, the omission of Lord Lindsay's clever device for converting the usual form of alt-azimuth stand into an effective equatorial mounting, knowledge of which is of prime importance in manipulating such telescopes as amateurs are most often provided with. After informing the hopeful reader that the small planets are mostly beyond the reach of his telescope, what sense is there in filling up a half-dozen pages with a mere enumeration of these bodies, such as may be found anywhere? We cannot say whose fault it is, if not the editor's, that the different parts of the work show a lack of relative balance. Impertinent details occupy pages when mere lines would have done. Misprints and misstatements are few. If the almost entire absence of illustrations is unfortunate, the lack of an index is more so.

The time has long since gone by when a new astronomical work by Mr. Proctor was likely to create any surprise. With his 'Old and New Astronomy,' of which part i has come to us, he has taken possession of a field from which no Anglican harvest has been garnered for many a year, and much good seems like to come from his reaping.

"The meaning of the stupendous celestial mechanism, the beauty and harmony of the celestial architecture, it is not for the Flamsteeds, the Maskelynes, and the Airys—useful, nay, essential though their work may be—but for the Newtons and Herschels of astronomy, to investigate. It is the celestial scene as viewed and studied by philosophers such as these, not merely as surveyed in Government observatories, that I propose to contemplate in the present volume; for astronomy, regarded as a means of philosophic training, owes almost all its value to men of the former type, scarcely any (though commerce owes much) to those of the latter" (p. 9).

If the style of the introduction smacks a little of Dick, Chalmers, *et al.*—astronomical authors slightly off color nowadays—we readily pass by on the other side when we reflect that a little of this sort of thing, now as in their day, is wholesome for inspiration's sake; while there is more than enough of compensation therefor in the high place the author assigns to Huxley's "first commandment of Science" (p. 3). Mr. Proctor makes no error in going well into the ancient astronomies. "We cannot," he says, "rightly apprehend either what ancient races achieved, or what they failed to achieve, in astronomy; we cannot rightly understand the edifices they erected or the labors they undertook in pursuance of astronomical observations, unless we perceive and admit that, among them all, astronomy was the servant of astrology, and astrology the high priest of religion" (p. 17). So he gives the prominence he ought to the pyramid of Egypt—"observatory, tomb, and temple"; to Sir Robert Barker's account of the massive stone instruments of the ancient observatory of the Brahmins at Benares; and to the Gentur Muntur (Royal Observatory) of Rajah Jeysing built at Delhi near the beginning of the eighteenth century. Oriental research shows the significance of such structures more and more; and the day may come when discoveries in the astronomy of the ancient peoples of the earth will contribute to the further refinement of the modern theories of the celestial motions, and thus possess far more than merely archæologic interest. Entire absence of the mediæval astronomy, Arabic and other, seems to us too prominent an omission, but that may well come in later. The relations of

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the ancient instruments to the modern are duly emphasized, and the fact clearly shown that, in so far as abstract principles go, the instruments of centuries ago were quite the equals of our own. With few exceptions the cuts are well chosen, and nearly fulfil the publisher's promise in the prospectus.

Flora of the Hawaiian Islands: A Description of their Phanerogams and Vascular Cryptogams. By William Hillebrand, M.D. Annotated and published after the author's death by W. F. Hillebrand. B. Westermann & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 673, with maps.

THIS archipelago has peculiar charms for the naturalist, owing to its extreme isolation. We expect to find islands which lie near the mainland or in close proximity to other large islands, clothed with vegetation borrowed from their neighbors. But, in the case of islands which are remote from all other land, the naturalist is forced to ask whether there might not have been, in geological times, some path from a now distant shore by which plants could have made their way; failing this, he is obliged to note the direction and force of ocean currents on which seeds and fragments of branches might have been borne. These questions have a remarkable degree of interest in regard to the Hawaiian or Sandwich group. If we except a few islets and reefs, the group stands alone. The nearest large islands are a trifle less, and the western shore of the American continent a little more, than two thousand miles away. Hence the Hawaiian vegetation affords an exceptional field for the examination of the question of variation within a limited geographical area.

The plants of the islands have been examined by a good many explorers, and large collections are to be found in all the principal herbaria, but, up to the present year, the results of the systematic studies have been widely scattered through journals and occasional publications. Now, however, these *disjecta membra* are gathered together by one who knew what place each part should properly take, and from the well-arranged material can be obtained many answers to questions of variation.

Dr. William Hillebrand, a German physician with a marked taste for the study of natural history, and with special qualifications for the pursuit of botany, resided for about twenty years in the islands, collecting and cultivating the plants around him, devoting to this work, as did our lamented Engelmann in his study of our flora, the scanty leisure left by the exacting practice of his profession. But, alas! also like Engelmann, he was not permitted to see his works brought together in a published form: the task of collating and revising has been done by other hands. Further, like Engelmann, Hillebrand has been fortunate in his editor: the 'Flora of the Hawaiian Islands,' which he had nearly finished, has been brought to completion by the loving care of a devoted son, who unites sound judgment with minute accuracy. The younger Hillebrand has wisely left unchanged in any great degree certain general and incomplete notes from which the lamented author would doubtless have framed a full account of the geographical botany of the islands. Although fragmentary, these notes are of high value, and in their unmodified form serve to indicate how great is our loss in the death of Dr. Hillebrand. It will be interesting to examine briefly some of them, because they throw considerable light on the general problem of variation.

First, as to the relations of the islands to the main land. Soundings show that there extends northwest a narrow band of raised sea-bottom, with an average depth of less than 1,000 fathoms:

"This line of reefs follows exactly the trend of the fissure in the globe's crust on which the Hawaiian volcanoes have been built up; and as there is abundant evidence that the age of the different islands of the group increases from east to west, it is fair to conclude that these islets, rocks, and reefs lie on the same fissure, and are only the coral-covered peaks of submerged older volcanoes, or, in other words, that the volcanic action commenced at the northwest extremity, thirty degrees of longitude northwest from the Island of Kauai, and gradually moved on to the island of Hawaii, with subsidence of the older formations while it progressed. But the western extremity of this raised sea-bottom land is separated by a great distance and enormous depths of sounding from the nearest high land, Japan, and the circumstance that the present flora of the Hawaiian Islands has less affinity to that of Japan than to any other warm or temperate country on the borders of the Pacific Ocean, forbids altogether the assumption that this submerged chain of islands can at any time have formed a road for the migration of plants."

A study of the ocean currents has convinced the author that the case does not stand much better with them than with respect to the other question. But even if the currents flowed in such directions as to carry plants towards the islands from either the lower coast of America or from the Moluccas, the transference by such currents is attended with many perils which very greatly diminish the number of actual survivals.

Second, the climate and the soil of the islands give us a wide scope for variations. "A single day's march will carry the traveller from the tropical heat of the coast to the region of perpetual snow; and in crossing the breadth of an island he may pass from a climate with an annual average of 180 inches of rainfall to one of 30 inches or less." Although the soil is generally uniform, there is one striking exception: the valleys have a heavy retentive clay, but the ground is for the most part pervious.

Now, lastly, in such a climate, and under conditions where foreign intruders could be so few, what are the native plants? "Deducting 115 species introduced by man since the discovery, and 24 which probably came in before that period, there remain 860 species of flowering plants and ferns as original inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands, distributed over 265 genera, and of these 860 species 653 are peculiar to the islands." Well may the author say, "Nature here luxuriates in formative energy." This he illustrates by a clear statement of the facts in regard to the ferns, which in the islands reach a marvellous degree of development.

Owing to the innumerable intermediate forms, the author has been forced to abandon the conventional limits of description, and although he apologizes for this, as if it might indicate a certain tendency to prolixity, he has, by his detailed descriptions of varieties, furnished most interesting material for the study of variations. Again we say that the editor has done wisely in not changing in any essential features the nature of his father's plan. The work is a noble monument.

Select Pleas of the Crown. Vol. 1. A. D. 1200-1225. Edited for the Selden Society by F. W. Maitland. London: Bernard Quaritch. 1888.

WE have already briefly referred to this important first volume of the publications of the Selden Society. The cases here reproduced and translated occurred at a very important period in the history of the law. In Mr. Maitland's 'Pleas of the Crown for the County of Gloucester,' in 1221 (Macmillan, 1884), he says:

"This was the first eyre held in Gloucestershire since the abolition of the ordeal. We thus catch sight of trial by jury at a most interesting and critical moment of its development. A greater number of remembrances may be called up by saying that this was the first eyre in Gloucestershire after the grant of the Great Charter. The charter, it will be remembered, was sealed on 15th June, 1215."

And of the contents of that book, he added:

"It is a picture, or rather, since little imaginative art went to its making, a photograph of English life as it was early in the thirteenth century. . . . We have here, as it were, a section of the body politic which shows just those most vital parts of which, because they were deep-seated, the soul politic was hardly conscious—the system of local government and police, the organization of county, hundred, and township."

All this has its application to the contents of the present volume. These are made up of selections from eyre rolls in the reign of John, from 1201 to 1203 inclusive, and in the reign of Henry III., from 1221 to 1225 inclusive; and from other plea rolls, of the King's chief court (whether at Westminster or following the King in his wanderings)—in John's reign, from 1200 to 1214 inclusive, and in Henry's reign during the four terms of 1220. The distinctive character of these rolls—both those of the "central" and "what we may call the visitatorial courts"—as well as of the tribunals themselves, are pointed out by Mr. Maitland in a very clear and simple way, and with an engaging but unobtrusive charm of style that is very seldom found united with so much learning.

The "eyres" were the iters or circuits of the King's itinerant justices. But the King himself in these early times was also itinerant, and wherever he went, went also, in a pretty literal sense, the fountain of justice. It was only by the Great Charter of 1215 that it was first fixed that common pleas should no longer follow the King; but even then a court of judges and pleas of the crown still followed the monarch wherever he went. What this meant to judges and suitors may be seen by looking at the "Itinerary of King John," from which Sir Henry Maine quotes in chapter vi. of his 'Early Law and Custom.'

"I take," he says, "almost at a venture May of 1207. On the 1st of May the King is found at Pontefract, on the 3d at Derby, on the 4th at Hunston, on the 5th at Lichfield, on the 8th at Gloucester, on the 10th at Bristol, on the 13th at Bath, on the 16th at Marlborough, on the 18th at Ludgershall, on the 20th at Winchester, on the 22d at Southampton, on the 24th at Porchester, on the 27th at Aldingbourn, on the 28th at Arundel, on the 29th at Knep Castle, and on the 31st at Lewes."

Maine gives further equally surprising illustrations of this wandering habit, and observes that these are no exceptional instances of activity.

"This was practically his life during every month of every year of his reign. King John passes for an effeminate sovereign, but no commercial traveller of our day, employed by a pushing house of business, was ever, I believe, so incessantly in movement, and for so many successive years, with all the help of railways."

All this wandering is regarded as a survival from a much earlier day.

"These ancient kings were itinerant, travelling or ambulatory personages. When they became stationary they generally perished. . . . With the sealing of the Great Charter, the early history of the relation of the English King to civil justice comes to a close, and the modern English judicial system is established." "He sealed Magna Charta at Runnymede on June 15, 1215, and before July 15 he had been over the whole South of England, and again northwards as far as Oxford. Meantime the judges of the Common Pleas were sitting—as they did ever since till the Court of Common

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Pleas was absorbed the other day in the High Court of Justice—at Westminster, and at Westminster only." .

By the Assize of Clarendon in 1166, the mode of trial in the principal pleas of the crown was fixed as the ordeal of fire or water; compurgation, the older form of trial, was, by construction, abolished. Then in November, 1215, the fourth Lateran Council, in effect, abolished the trial by ordeal by forbidding any ecclesiastic, which was as much as to say any judge, to take part in allowing it; and this was accepted and recognized in England in the third year of Henry III. (1219), in royal writs addressed to the itinerant justices, which suggested no substitute for the ordeal, and commended all that was left unsettled to the sound judgment of the justices themselves. They seem thereafter, in the exercise of this discretion, by consent of the accused and otherwise, gradually to have introduced the trial by jury in the chief classes of criminal cases. This system of trial, in certain civil cases, had lately come in, and had worked well. In criminal cases, also, it had been sometimes resorted to, by the King's special license. And now it offered a way out of the singular difficulty which had just befallen the administration of the regular criminal justice of the country. It is here that we seem to find the origin of our wholly peculiar system of a double jury in criminal cases—the prototype of the grand jury being found in the accusing inquest which had been provided for in the Assize of Clarendon and was still continued.

The cases in this volume, as we have already said, illustrate the law of criminal trials during the very grave and important transition period when these great events were coming on and happening and passing by. We are sitting at the cradle of trial by jury in criminal cases, an institution which English-speaking people have always accounted sacred. Here also we find the ordeal in force; as in a case before John, at Wells. Early in his reign, "William Trenchebof was said to have handed to Inger of Faldingthorpe the knife wherewith Inger slew Wido Foliot. He is suspected [*malecreditus*] thereof by jurors. Let him purge himself by the water. . . . He has failed and is hanged." Mr. Maitland remarks that this is the only case of a failure at the ordeal that he has found. "Success seems common." Of the old criminal appeal and the award of trial by battle there are many instances. The cases are full of quaint and circumstantial narrative, opening a window into the every-day life of the times.

Indices of persons and places are given, which have a value of their own. Appended to the volume are several important circulars of the Selden Society describing the character of the work which it has undertaken; we commend these to the attention of our readers. It should be added that the volumes of the Society can be obtained of Quaritch, but only at a price considerably above the annual subscription of a guinea, which secures membership in the Society and a copy of its publications for the year.

Tenting on the Plains. By Mrs. E. B. Custer. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 702, with illustrations.

MRS. CUSTER has broken open and lavishly exposed her memories of military life in Texas and Kansas during the two years immediately following Lee's surrender. Again, as in 'Boots and Saddles,' we are taken directly into her home, and share her daily hopes and fears, see the courage and adroitness with which she repressed all ills, great and small, that might interfere with her presence near her husband, and witness, if not partake of, the felicity that crowned her life when he was by her side. The book is as open as the sky. The dark clouds and the bright stars are not plainer than her trials and her joys, while there is always the central figure whose presence makes day, and whose absence is night. So plenary a revelation would not be pleasant were it less ingenuous; but it is the spontaneous unfolding of a young wife's devotion, as unaffected and as natural as the development of a flower. The wonder is how, in all their fresh detail, the features of those long-past wandering years can be reproduced. She well may exclaim, "Blessed be our memory, which preserves to us the joys as well as the sadness of life!"

All the characters presented are real, but after the two central figures, decidedly the most attractive is Eliza, the General's colored cook, well known in the field in his cavalry division and beyond, and now introduced to a much wider circle, where there is no doubt she will be duly appreciated. Eliza's practical sense and strong individuality make her an important personage in the kitchen and in the book, and it is a pleasure to observe that prosperous, but still enthusiastic, in her maturer years she is a substantial co-laborer in the preparation of this volume. What Eliza said and did comes next to the doings of the heroine.

But the book is not meant to be a mere chronicle of the small beer of domestic pleasures and trouble and nothing more. It is a record of marches through Southern swamps and forests, of northers on land and a hurricane at sea, of perils by Indian warfare, by cholera, by floods—all serious and sometimes disastrous. Its public value consists in its presentation of the constant trials and privations, as well as of more heroic adventures, that befell the troops when "there was no wild clamor of war to enable them to forget the absence of the commonest necessities of existence." It also commemorates the hardships, personally observed, of those pioneers who, pressing back the savage and redeeming the desert, have made Kansas within so short a period a land of wheat and corn. This unvarnished but very true account of daily life on a frontier that is now contracting, but has not disappeared, is instructive to those to whom "the army in peace" is a contradictory, if not a meaningless, phrase.

With her extreme frankness, the author exposes some of the social infelicities of her earlier garrison life, due to the heterogeneous material of which the new regular regiments were organized in 1866. When bravery under fire and political influence were the chief determinants in securing commissions, it is obvious that other sterling qualities, to say nothing of the graces of life, were to be found chiefly by good luck. But we believe we are justified in saying that the crooked sticks and odd fish that appeared in those earlier scenes have been fairly eliminated long since, with a corresponding elevation of the social tone following.

The book is an odd mixture of grave adventure and minute family detail, and its occasional lapses in style, in English, and in syntax, with its sprightly unconventionality, only emphasize the real vigor of much of the original matter. Among the various incidents selected for quotation, space barely allows reference to one: the flood by night on Big Creek, when their own lives and many others were in danger, when seven men were drowned, and when Mrs. Custer, Eliza, and a clothesline rescued one nearly perished wretch. Mrs. Custer paints the setting, but Eliza tells this tale most dramatically. Although somewhat overgrown, this volume may fairly take its place by its chronological successor, but actual precursor, 'Boots and Saddles.' It is published in a style similar to Grant's memoirs, from the same press.

Ethics of Boxing and Manly Sport. By John Boyle O'Reilly. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

ONE-THIRD of this book is devoted to boxing and collateral questions of diet and training; and if Mr. O'Reilly had omitted twenty-five pages of padding, about Olympic games and Roman gladiators, in regard to which the classical dictionaries contain ample information, this part of the book, in spite of some faults, would have been quite satisfactory. The illustrations are very clever, the scientific exposition of the mysteries of the manly art is sufficiently clear to satisfy the most exacting critic and the chapters on "Diet" and "Exercise for City Dwellers" are of real value, both to young men and maidens. Mr. O'Reilly is an enthusiast on the subject of boxing, although he condemns the brutality of fighting with bare fists, and he claims for his favorite sport that it is the most perfect of all exercises, and that "the knowing how to fight makes common men self-reliant and independent." These virtues have often before been claimed for boxing, and it is worth while to consider the justice of the claim. It is undoubtedly true that in boxing a man brings into play almost every muscle of his body; but those who are opposed to boxing, on the ground that its tendency is almost inevitably to brutalize, may fairly claim that rowing, wrestling, base-ball, foot-ball, and swimming are very nearly, if not quite, as good exercises, while, from the ethical point of view, they are distinctly superior. The second virtue claimed for boxing is open to grave doubt; for the fighting that is done on modern battle-fields is of a kind that has little in common with boxing, while, on the other hand, there is always a risk that the youth who becomes a clever boxer may become a quarrelsome bully. In this connection, it is worth while to note that whereas boxing was very popular among the athletic clubs of New York ten years ago, it is now entirely neglected, so much so that it is only practised by amateurs of doubtful standing, and by semi-professionals. But whatever may be the conclusion in regard to the general merits of boxing, Mr. O'Reilly has certainly said all that can be said in its favor.

The remaining two-thirds of his book have nothing to do with boxing; nor does the second section, which consists of a long and very uninteresting account of the ancient weapons of Ireland, wielded by Cuchullin and other unpronounceable heroes, bear any sort of relation to the rest of the book. This mythical discourse has, to all appearance, been thrown in as an afterthought, either to round out the book, or from an economical desire on the part of the author to turn to some account materials collected for other purposes.

In the last hundred pages Mr. O'Reilly returns to the present day, and gives an admirable account of several canoeing trips on American rivers. His descriptions of scenery and of the charms of camping out betray the poet, and to most readers these last chapters will appear decidedly the best in the volume. They are more carefully written than the pugilistic part of the book, which shows signs of having been put together in haste—possibly to take advantage of the recent revival of Sullivanism. In one of the early chapters, for instance, Mr. O'Reilly writes: "The games were opened to all Greeks. There was no *exemption*—except for women"—a sentence which does not seem

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to convey any clear meaning; while a little further on may be found the remarkable statement that "in 1877 a Turkish iron-clad moved at the terrible speed of thirty miles an hour." This is haste indeed!

If Mr. O'Reilly had cut out about 125 of his 350 pages, and had taken a little more pains with the remainder, the result would have been a very enjoyable book instead of an uneven and, on the whole, a disappointing one.

Our Republic: A Text-Book upon the Civil Government of the United States, with a Historic Introduction. By Prof. M. B. C. True and Hon. John W. Dickinson. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 1888. Pp. vii, 264.

THE publishers' circular accompanying this book announces that it is "ample in its treatment, . . . scientific in its methods, . . . accurate in statement." The best commentary on their opinion may be found in a few extracts. A book on Civil Government can hardly be called "ample" which gives but two pages to a description of local and municipal government (pp. 43–45); and four more to the State governments (pp. 39–42). For grammar-school instruction, it is not "scientific" to introduce, without definition, such legal terms as "committee-delegates" (p. 20), "common law" (p. 33), "presentment" (p. 53), "sold upon execution" (p. 64), "conveyances" (p. 69), "Act of God" (p. 74). The degree of accuracy may be judged from the following statements: "Pennsylvania. This State was granted to William Penn in 1681" (p. 13); "The adoption of the Constitution [1787–88] changed the colonies into States" (p. 22); "The Convention adopted the Constitution, September 17, 1787, and its members from all the colonies, except those from Rhode Island, signed it" (p. 25); "The district attorney is the prosecuting officer of the county" (p. 43); "To have the privilege of suffrage, a person must be a citizen of the United States" (p. 45); "The district attorneys and other marshals" (p. 128); "There is little reason for any regulation of commerce between the States" (p. 105); "Inside its own territory the State authority is supreme" (p. 128). The book is full of similar inexcusable and misleading errors.

Society in Rome under the Cæsars. By William Ralph Inge, M.A., Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and Assistant Master at Eton. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888. 12mo, pp. 276.

MR. INGE'S essay obtained the Hare prize at Cambridge in 1886. It consists of ten chapters, headed "Religion," "Philosophy," "Morality," etc., and may be recommended as containing an accurate, well-digested account of the subject under consideration. All sources of information appear to have been diligently used, and the view of society is fair and truthful, equally removed from the undiscriminating denunciation indulged in by too many moderns, and the opposite fault, of extenuating the evils and immoralities of the times. It is rather a description than a picture—certainly a safer undertaking, and perhaps more generally useful; but we should say that the best treatment of such a subject, if it were a possible one, would be a graphic presentation, with abundance of illustrative incident, such as should give the treatise something of the characteristic of a good novel. Mr. Inge has had a different aim, and has succeeded where, if he had tried the other method, he might have failed.

A real defect is the failure to look below the surface. Society as it was in the first centuries is very truthfully delineated, so far as was possible with the materials at hand; the author laments that the accessible materials make it necessary to confine his view for the most part to the upper classes of society. But there is one kind of evidence of which he has not made the most—the drift and tendencies of society, which were, of course, concealed from contemporaries, but which we, looking back from a distance, can discern clearly. The second century shows vast changes in society, on the whole for the better; Mr. Pater has thoroughly entered into the spirit of this in his 'Marius the Epicurean.' Now, the fault we find with Mr. Inge is that he does not make us feel that society was in *movement*—it is described too much as a fixed condition of things to be analyzed and catalogued, and not enough as a current of human passions and forces, leading to a well-known and, on the whole, improved state of society.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bell, A. M. World-English: the Universal Language. N. D. C. Hodges. 25 cents.
Benedict, Anne K. My Wonder Story. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Benedix, R. Doctor Wespe. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Besant—Rice. By Celia's Arbour: A Tale of Portsmouth Town. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Besant—Rice. The Monks of Thelema: A Novel. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Besant—Rice. This Son of Vulcan. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Besant—Rice. With Harp and Crown: A Novel. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Bishop, J. P. Common Law and Codification; or, the Common Law as a System of Reasoning. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co. 50 cents.
Buchanan, Rachel. A Débutante in New York Society: Her Illusions and What Became of Them. D. Appleton & Co.
Carr, L. Missouri: a Bone of Contention. [Commonwealth Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Case, Jules. Bonnet rouge. Paris: Victor-Havard; Boston: Schoenhof.
Cawein, M. J. The Triumph of Music, and Other Lyrics. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co.
Christianity in the Daily Conduct of Life: Studies of Texts Relating to Principles of the Christian Character. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Connelly, Emma M. Tilting at Windmills: A Story of the Blue Grass Country. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Dowling, R. Ignorant Essays. D. Appleton & Co.
Fawcett, E. Olivia Delaplane: A Novel. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Fish, G. T. A Guide to the Conduct of Meetings; Being Models of Parliamentary Practice for Young and Old. Harper & Bros.
Frank, Félix, and Chenevière, Adolphe. Lexique de la langue de Bonaventure des Périers. Paris: L. Cerf; Boston: Schoenhof.
Hall, J. G. Shakespeare versus Ingersoll. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co. 25 cents.
Hardy, T. Wessex Tales. Strange, Lively and Commonplace. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Henderson, G. J. Lingua: An International Language for Purposes of Commerce and Science. London: Trübner & Co. 25 cents.
Hillingdon Hall; or, the Cockney Squire. A Tale of Country Life. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
His Way and Her Will: A Novel. Belford, Clarke & Co.
James, H. Partial Portraits. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Jewett, Sarah Orne. The King of Folly Island, and Other People. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Journal des Goncourt. Mémoires de la vie littéraire. T. III. (1866–1870). Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof.
Kluge, F. Von Luther bis Lessing. 2d ed. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner.
Kosiyák, H., and Ader, A. Deutschland und die Deutschen. Modern Language Pub. Co.
Mackay, Dr. C. A Dictionary of Lowland Scotch. With an Introductory Chapter on the Poetry, Humor, and Literary History of the Scotch Language. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $3.
Miller, Olive Thorne. In Nesting Time. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Morris, C. The Aryan Race: Its Origin and its Achievements. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Nixon, R. C. J. Geometry in Space, containing Parts of Euclid's Eleventh and Twelfth Books. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Patterson, C. S. The United States and the States under the Constitution. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.
Pearson, K. The Ethic of Free Thought: A Selection of Essays and Lectures. Scribner & Welford.
Pessard, Hector, Mes Petits Papiers. 2e série (1871–1873). Paris: Quantin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Pidgin, C. F. Practical Statistics: A Handbook for the Use of the Statistician at Work. Boston: The William E. Smythe Co.
Pool, Maria Louise. Tenting at Stony Beach. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Pratt's Manual of Banking Law: A Treatise on the Law Applicable to the Every-Day Business of Banks. Washington: A. S. Pratt & Sons.
Roe, E. R. May and June: A Romance of the Revolution. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Rorer, Mrs. S. T. Hot-Weather Dishes. Philadelphia: Arnold & Co.
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